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ABSTRACT

This teacher's guide to the sixth grade social studies course on United States history, which is part of an articulated sequential curriculum for grades k-12, contains resource units which emphasize culture concepts in studying the American Indians and the Spanish, French, and British settlements. Cognitive and affective developmental skills are stressed. The seven units are designed to help students learn scholarly values, democratic values, and the value of human dignity. Inquiry strategies encourage pupils to learn through the discovery process and to set up hypotheses by recalling concepts and generalizations learned by experiences and previous classes. Four major sections are included in the guide. The first section presents information on course objectives, rationale, descriptions, teaching strategies, how to adapt resource units to specific classes, and how the course fits into the total program. The second section consists of charts indicating the way in which cognitive, affective, conceptual, and generalization skills are developed in different units. A background paper, written by Robert F. Berkhofer Jr. and contained in the third section, identifies the important topics to be taught in each unit. The last section provides a content bibliography. The seven units are contained in documents SO 003 147 through SO 003 153. (SJM)

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TEACHER'S GUIDE TO THE
SIXTH GRADE COURSE
on
UNITED STATES HISTORY:
FROM COMMUNITY TO SOCIETY

This course is part of an articulated curriculum for grades K-12 and have been developed by the Project Social Studies Curriculum Center at the University of Minnesota.

This material was developed under a special grand from the United States Office of Education (HS-045).

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GOALS FOR COURSE

The resource units make it clear that the sixth grade course is designed to teach attitudes and skills as well as generalizations and concepts. This section deals briefly with objectives for the course. Charts appended to this guide indicate more specificially the way in which goals are developed in the different units.

Behavioral Goals Related to Values

The sixth grade course was developed with a view to helping pupils develop many of the scholarly values identified by the Center's staff for the entire social studies program. It was designed also to develop a number of attitudes related to public values or the ground rules for the operation of a democratic society. It should be noted, moreover, that some of these attitudes are basic to an overall value which has not been stated for each of the units -- the value of human dignity. Most pupils will come to the course with a fairly well-developed value for human dignity as a result of previous experiences at home, in school, in church, and in their many informal groups. Probably the more specific values of this course will develop as pupils see the need for certain things in order to protect this major value. However, the content used to teach these

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other values, such as those related to the protection of minority rights, evaluating events and institutions on the basis of their effects upon human beings, etc. may also help reinforce pupils' attitudes toward human dignity.

The sixth grade course is also designed to develop several attitudes which are likely to arise from the study of social science content. For example, several of the units try to help pupils develop a scepticism of single-factor causation in the social sciences and of panaceas for curing social problems.

It should not be thought that some of the goals are neglected merely because there is no check against them under a specific unit in the chart. The checks indicate those units where the goals have been kept in mind in designing specific activities and sometimes the entire unit approach. Many of the others will be reinforced in units in which they are not checked.

Skills

This course attempts to develop many skills. A large number of these are related to methods of inquiry. Many of these are introduced in the first unit. A number of these skills have been taught in earlier courses, although they should be refined in this course. Those which are taught in earlier courses are marked by stars in the chart on sequential development of skills on pages 16-19 of this guide.

It should be noted that although some of these skills are not listed as objectives in more than one unit (e. g.
later units give pupils opportunities to practice and improve the skill. Teachers may find that they should work intensively on the skill in a number of units and should then list it as an objective of the later teaching units.

Some of the skills objectives should be taught in all of the units for which they are listed. These are the thinking skills related to inquiry and critical evaluation.

Some of the other skills are listed for more than one unit, too. However, the teacher may decide to postpone teaching the skill in the first unit in which it is listed. Or she may feel that it is unnecessary to teach it to all pupils in the second unit in which it is found, even though she may wish to work on the skill with a small group of pupils who still need help on it.

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iosen to identify important concepts and generalizations from the various social sciences and has tried to provide for a sequential development of them in the K-12 curriculum. The course in grade six is a history course. The staff's historican takes the point of view that history has no major concepts of its own; rather, it draws upon concepts which may have been used frequently or even introduced by historians but which have been analyzed more carefully in other social science fields. Therefore, the sixth grade history course makes heavy use of concepts from the other social sciences, particularly from anthropology. The staff's viewpoint on structure in disciplines is explained in Background Papers # 1 and 2. For further analysis of the field of history, the teacher is referred to the background paper on history by Professor Robert F. Berkhofer, Jr.

It is important to remember that the culture concept from anthropology has been used to tie the entire curriculum together. The sixth grade course is designed to teach ideas about culture, cultural diversity, culture contact, culture change, cultural continuity, and the cultural use of the environment. Data on the details of some of the Indian cultures studied in this course are not important except as they help develop an understanding of some of these concepts or to develop an appreciation of the cultural contributions of some of the societies. Data on early settlements are important because they are needed to teach generalizations about cultural use of the environment, cultural continuity, and culture change.

The Rationale for the Number of Objectives

These resource units differ from many units in part because of the large number of generalizations and skills to be taught. The teacher should remember that many of these generalizations and skills are found in a number of the units in the sixth grade course. The sequential pattern from one unit to the next can be seen in the charts at the end of this guide. Moreover, many of the objectives are reviewed from earlier grades and almost all will be taught through different content in later grades. This means that it is not necessary or wise to spend to spend too much time clinching a single generalization in any one unit. Rather, children should generalize and hold these generalizations as tentative -- as hypotheses to be tested more fully as they study other units. At the end of the course they can generalize more fully about any one topic than they can at the beginning of the course. However, they should still understand that generalizations may need to be modified later, that they should be held tentatively, always subject to change in the light of new evidence.

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Because of this reinforcement and further development of concepts, generalizations, and skills, it is important for the teacher to read through the objectives of all of the units before he begins the course. It would be wise, also, to examine the objectives of earlier courses. The charts on goals, which are found at the end of this guide, are keyed to show which ones were taught in the earlier grades. The overall chart in Background Paper # 1 indicates at what levels each concept, generalization, skill, or attitudinal behavior appears.

TEACHING STRATEGIES

This course relies heavily upon an inquiry approach to teaching. For a more complete discussion of inquiry strategies in teaching, the teacher should read a number of the background papers. Background Paper # 1 analyzes in more detail the Center's point of view about inquiry as a teaching strategy and what inquiry involves. Background Paper # 10 examines learning theory in relation to the use of inquiry. Background papers on the individual disciplines focus upon inquiry methods and techniques used in those disciplines, not upon inquiry approaches to teaching. However, they discuss inquiry techniques which might be taught to pupils in some of the courses. For example, the background paper in history analyzes factors to be considered in deciding how much faith to put in an account.

This sixth grade course emphasizes a teaching strategy which encourages pupils to find out things for themselves rather than one which emphasizes the absorption of generalizations presented ready-made by the teacher or a book. Pupils are asked to set up hypotheses by drawing upon previously-learned concepts and generalizations. They decide that some idea they have learned in the past might help them make sense out of this new situation. They cannot be sure, but they think that this might be so. Inquiry also involves gathering data, evaluating sources, testing their hypotheses, and generalizing from their findings.

Teachers should encourage pupils' hypotheses or guesses as being as worthwhile at some stages of thinking as are statements which present a commentary on facts found in books, articles, or films. At other times pupils should be asked to look for things which can be used to test their hypotheses. They should learn that an untested opinion of a non-normative nature is not as good as a tested opinion or generalization. Even at this stage, however, pupils should be rewarded for thinking of new hypotheses or for asking relevant questions which hav
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The Center's staff does not believe, nor does this course reflect a belief, that all learning must be developed by this type of teaching strategy. Some skill goals call for having pupils learn to use certain kinds of references or evaluate sources of information. Such goals cannot be met unless pupils use a wide variety of materials which present different points of view or generalizations. Moreover, pupils may need to read materials or watch films in order to gather data to test their hypotheses. Some accounts used in the units are designed to help pupils find out how people feel about events. Novels and biographies give pupils a chance to identify with the people in the accounts and so to understand their feelings. Even when pupils read other people's accounts of topics, they should be evaluating the ideas against other data, discriminating between fact and opinion, identifying basic assumptions, etc. and using the data they find to either stimulate new hypotheses for testing or to test earlier hypotheses.

At times the teacher may wish to use a very informal lecture or talk to present certain facts, but she can then ask questions to help pupils arrive at their own generalizations from these facts. Indeed, she can intersperse questions and discussion with her presentation. The purpose of such an informal lecture is to give pupils the raw data from which they can develop concepts and generalizations -- information which perhaps is difficult for them to find elsewhere or to read for themselves or which can be presented more quickly in this fashion. The informal lecture should seldom present ready-made generalizations. Thus it is a far cry from the well-organized talk which begins with a thesis and then develops it.

Clearly, achievement of varied goals requires varied teaching strategies. The strategy used in each instance, however, should be appropriate to the specific objectives to be developed.

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for discussions and for tests. Pupils can read different materials focused upon the same questions. They can be tested upon what they hear in class discussions or in various kinds of reports as well as upon what they read. By testing for concepts, generalizations and skills rather than the specifics within any piece of writing, the teacher can avoid penalizing any pupil who has read something different and can make it clear to the pupils that she is in earnest when she says that she is more concerned about important ideas than about details. Sometimes tests can also ask each pupil to evaluate one of the accounts which he has read.

THE FOCUS OF THE SIXTH GRADE COURSE

The sixth grade course shifts from the study of geography to the study of the history of the United States. No attempt is made to teach all of the traditional topics in American history. Rather, this course has been articulated with the tenth grade course to try to prevent duplication. For further discussion of the way in which the two courses are related, the teacher should read the section below on how the sixth grade course fits into the overall curriculum. Those topics chosen for study in the sixth grade course were considered particularly appropriate to pupils' maturity and interest and are useful in developing ideas about culture, cultural use of the environment, culture contact, culture change, and cultural diversity.

The course also emphasizes the need for careful evaluation of sources of information in terms of bias and competency of the producer. Pupils use varied source materials as well as textbooks and many non-text materials as they study this course.

THE GENERAL OUTLINE OF THE COURSE

Unit 1: Indian America Before the White Men

This unit uses case studies of two Indian cultures, each of which came into contact later with a different group of European colonizers. Pupils study the Aztecs who were later conquered by the Spanish and the Iroquois who came into contact with both the French and the English. Pupils study the Aztecs and the Iroquois as total cultures and draw comparisons between them.

Unit 2: Spanish and French Settlement of North America

This unit deals briefly with reasons for colonization of America. It then turns to the Spanish settlement of Mexico, the way in which the Spanish took their culture with them to the new world, differences in the way in which the Aztecs and the Spanish perceived the same en
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In the next part of the unit, pupils
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Unit 4: Revolutionary America

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In the next part of the unit, pupils turn to the French settlement of Canada. They study it in much the same way that they studied the Spanish colonization and contact with Indians. Pupils contrast the French and Spanish settlements as well as the European and Indian cultures which came into contact with each other.

Unit 3: English Settlement of North America

This unit uses case studies of the settlements at Jamestown and Plymouth to illustrate both similarities and differences in the English settlement patterns. The unit describes English contact with the Iroquois and other Indian groups and it contrasts their cultures. Pupils also compare the English settlements with those of the French and Spanish.

Unit 4: Revolutionary America

This unit uses case studies of Williamburg and Boston in the eighteenth century to show change and continuity from the earlier English settlements at Jamestown and Plymouth in the seventeenth century. The unit also examines some of the changes which led to the revolution and deals with the Revolution itself.

Unit 5: National Expansion

Unit five traces internal migration and immigration into the Old Northwest and the New South. Pupils note how different streams of migration from the Atlantic seaboard moved to different places in the old northwest and southwest and how the differences in their cultures resulted in differences in the places to which they migrated. Pupils trace some of the movement through the stories of certain families, such as the Lincoln family, the Douglas family, and the Houston and Davis families. The unit also describes foreign immigration into this area of the West and the transportation developments which facilitated the westward movement.

Unit 6: Civil War and Reconstruction

This unit uses the culture concept to analyze the causes of the Civil War. There is considerable emphasis upon conditions of slavery and some attention to the African background of slaves. There is opportunity for the study of some military history, but pupils also analyze the role of the Negro in the

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war. After examining the Reconstruction period, pupils turn briefly to the development of segregation in the South following the Reconstruction period.

Unit 7: The Completion of National Expansion

This unit begins with two case studies of Indians of the Plains: the Cheyenne and the Mandan. Pupils note the differences and similarities between these two cultures and how they used their physical environment. The unit then turns to the white men's perceptions of the great plains and to the effects of white-Indian contact in the plains area.

THE PLACE OF THE SIXTH GRADE COURSE IN THE OVERALL CURRICULUM

It is important for teachers to understand how this course fits into the rest of the Center's curricular framework. The kindergarten program is designed to acquaint children with the general idea of varied peoples in the world and with simple geographic concepts and skills. Children will have studied their own neighborhood, learned something about directions and distances, made simple maps and learned to use simple globes and maps. They will have found out that communities and countries are dependent upon each other for many goods and resources. They will also have been introduced to the idea of change in the environment which results both from natural forces and from man's activities.

It seems appropriate to have children begin their study of culture by focusing upon only one institution--an institution which is close to their lives. The two year sequence of "Families Around the World" does introduce several other institutions in a simple way as children focus upon the family. Children will notice differences in education and to some extent in religion. They will be introduced to simple economic concepts such as specialization and economic interdependence. However, they will wait to study other institutions in greater depth until grades three and four.

Grade three uses the theme of "Communities Around the World" to introduce children in more detail to social and political institutions. Again some economic concepts are developed, but the major focus upon economic institutions does not come until grade four.

The fourth grade course uses the same theme of "Communities Around the World" to introduce contrasting economic systems. Children will spend a large portion of their time finding out in simple terms how our own economic system

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In each of these grade levels, institutions are added to a study of other institutions which pupils have examined earlier. That is, as children look at the Manus or Paris community in grade three, they will also notice some things about the family life in these communities. As children look at economic life in the village of India in grade four, they will find out much about the family life and the social and political life in an Indian village. In this fashion, children study more institutions in each grade level until they are able to look at total cultures without too much confusion.

In grade five, children study in much more detail how different cultures or the same people over time use the same physical environment. The focus is upon the geography of the United States, Canada, and Latin America. The fifth grade course gives pupils some understanding of the physical environment of several places studied in the sixth grade. For example, pupils' study of the northeastern part of the United States provides useful background for the study of the Iroquois and the early English settlement in Plymouth. The study of the Midwest and of the South provides help when pupils look at expanison into those areas. The study of the South also provides background for Civil War. Finally, the study of the Great Plains area, although not detailed, should provide useful background for the final unit in the sixth grade on expansion into the Great Plains area. Pupils can also draw upon what they have learned in the fifth grade to make comparisons between the Algonquins and the Iroquois and between the Sioux and other Plains Indians studied in the sixth grade course.

The sixth grade course differs from the fifth grade course by emphasizing culture contact and the movement of people with their culture to new places rather than the changing use of the same physical environment, even though that idea is reinforced in the course.

It is important to notice the way in which the sixth grade course compares with the tenth grade course on United States history. In order to prevent duplication, the tenth grade course omits many of the topics covered in the sixth grade course or treats them very differently. Thus the unit on the Colonial Age has very different focus than the unit on English colonial settlements in the sixth grade course, and it omits the Indian groups and the French and Spanish settlements. Students do not spend

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omits the Indian groups and the French
tlements. Students do not spend

time on the Revolutionary War except to analyze the important ideas which brought it about and which made the Republican Age of the Eighteenth Century different from the Colonial Age of the Seventeenth Century. On the other hand, pupils study the organization of the new government, the development of a political party system and other political developments prior to the Civil War. They also study the social, economic, and political reform movements of the 1820's-1840's. The westward movement is omitted from the tenth grade course, although pupils refer to some of the sectional conflicts which developed as they study the causes of the Civil War and as they analyze the Turner frontier thesis in the unit on the Democratic Age.

The tenth grade unit on the Civil War includes considerable material on slavery, although the teacher can reduce it once pupils have come through the sixth grade course. The unit does not deal with the military conflict. Rather, the focus on the war itself is upon the role of the executive in times of crisis and upon issues related to security and freedom in wartime. The unit includes material on reconstruction but in much less extensive form than in the sixth grade. Moreover, the emphasis is upon an analysis of reconstruction plans, upon the executive-legislative conflict, and upon the historical debate over reconstruction governments in the

South.

The tenth grade course also includes an analysis of the rise of industrialism and responses to industrialism, including the rise of labor unions and farm organizations and the political developments of the Progressive Era.

The final unit in the tenth grade focuses upon economic developments in the period after World War I and in the ramifications of change resulting from those developments. The usual emphasis upon foreign policy is omitted since foreign policy is treated at length in the eleventh and twelfth grade courses.

Minority group relations are treated in a number of places in the secondary school curriculum. The last unit in the seventh grade course in sociology focuses upon Intergroup Relations and builds upon what pupils have learned in the sixth grade unit on the Civil War and Reconstruction. Minority groups are also treated through case studies in the eighth grade course, in the poverty unit in the ninth grade, in the tenth grade unit on Civil War and Reconstruction, and in a twelfth grade unit on Racial Conflict.

THE FORMAT OF THE RESOURCE UNITS

The main part of each resource unit is set up in a double-page form
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twelfth grade unit on Racial Conflict.

RMAT OF THE RESOURCE UNITS

t of each resource unit is set up in a

double-page format to help teachers see the relationships among objectives, content, teaching procedures, and materials of instruction. The objectives for each procedure are found in the first column on the left-hand page. This column answers the questions: Why would we use this procedure or teach this content? What should be the focus of the procedure? The second column on the left-hand page presents an outline of content. This column answers the question: What topics should we teach? The first column on the right-hand page includes suggested teaching procedures. This column answers the question: How can we teach these objectives and this content? The final column on materials of instruction answers the question: With what materials can we teach these objectives and this content?

A key is used in the objectives column to make the type of objective stand out clearly. Generalizations are preceded by a G and are in plain type. Skills are preceded by an S and are underlined. Attitudinal behaviors are preceded by an A and are in capital letters.

If no objective is found in the left-hand column for a particular procedure, the teacher should look at the last objective(s) listed in the column for a single procedure. An objective is not repeated until a different objective intervenes.

By knowing what generalization(s) are listed for a particular procedure, the teacher can direct her handling of the procedure to appropriate ends. As stated earlier, however, she should not feel that children should learn a generalization as the result of this one procedure. The procedure should help lead to the development of the generalization but is almost never the only procedure aimed at accomplishing this end even within the same unit.

If no content is found in the left-hand column for a particular procedure, the teacher should look at the last content listed in the column for a single procedure. The content is not repeated for all of the procedures which develop it.

The materials column does not include complete bibliographic data nor all of the references which might be used. The publishers can be found in the bibliography at the end of the main body of the unit. The bibliography frequently includes other books and materials which may be used in the unit, but which are not quite so necessary as those listed in the body of the unit. Teachers are encouraged to add other materials as they are published or suitable materials which are in their school libraries but which are not listed in the bibliography.

ADAPTING RESOUR
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ADAPTING RESOURCE UNITS TO SPECIFIC CLASSES

The units provided by the Center are resource units. Naturally, teachers are expected and encouraged to add their own ideas for materials and teaching procedures. These units are intended to suggest possibilities, not to present a cut-and-dried course.

Since these units are resource units, a teacher is not expected to use all of the suggested procedures. Indeed she could not do so in any one class. Rather, she should select and add procedures which are most suitable for her class. She should consider a number of factors as she makes this selection.

1. The objectives which she wishes to emphasize in the unit.

   Suppose the teacher discovers that pupils need more help on certain evaluation skills. She may wish to develop additional exercises to give pupils more opportunities to develop this skill.

2. The general ability level of the class.

   For example, in a class of largely low ability children, the teacher may wish to spend more time on some of the activities which call for making concrete items, manipulating things, or drawing.

3. The differing abilities and interests of class members.

   This criterion is particularly important in selecting individual and small group activities.

4. Previous experiences of children.

   The selection of objectives, content, procedures, and materials will depend in part upon: (a) previous experiences outside of school, such as trips, visits to museums, where children lived before coming to the community, socio-economic background of children, etc.; (b) earlier school experiences, including whether or not children have come through the earlier courses in the Center's curriculum. Much more attention will have to be paid to developing some of the concepts related to culture if children have not had the earlier courses.

5. The rest of the school curriculum, both in social studies and in other fields.

   The teacher will need to consider questions such as the following: (a) Will children study other courses from this Center's curriculum

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llowing: (a) Will children study
from this Center's curriculum

at later grade levels? If they will not be studying the seventh grade course, the teacher may wish to expand some of the treatment of civil rights in the unit on the Civil War and Reconstruction. (b) What are children learning in their science units which might help them in social studies? What books are they reading for their English work?

6. Materials available for the course.

   Some procedures will have to be omitted if needed materials are not available or if other materials cannot be substituted. Much of this course, however, can be taught through text materials and books typically found in school and local libraries. The most difficult unit to teach without new materials is unit one. The first year, teachers should probably spend more money on materials for that unit than for any other.

7. Factors in the community which might affect how the teacher can handle certain controversial issues or the kinds of resource people available.

8. The need for variety in procedures from one unit to the next and from one day to the next.

As teachers adapt and add to units, they should keep in mind certain things about how the course has been developed. First, there is a flow to each unit. Certain things are placed first and other things later because of the need to develop certain concepts or present certain data before other ideas are presented. Before the order of procedures or content is shifted, the teacher needs to analyze the concepts and data needed to teach each procedure in order to decide whether the shift is wise or, if it is made, what else needs to be shifted in order to provide the background needed for carrying out the procedure. Whatever the teacher does, she should develop a logical flow. A jumbled order which has no logical progression may interfere with the pupils' organization and development of ideas. Moreover, treating many topics superficially at one point early in the unit and then teaching them again later may blunt the interest needed to motivate study. By all means, the flow of the units should not be determined just by who happens to be ready with a report or panel discussion first. Nor is it wise to set up a series of reports to be presented one after another, with no variation in procedure or without any attempt to fit them into their proper place in the schedule of other procedures for developing topics.

The teacher will need, of course, to adapt the teaching unit from day to day to make sure that she provides a variety of procedures within each day's lesson. Except in unusual classes, sixth grade pupils should not be expected to maintain a
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should not be expected to maintain a
high interest level if they are asked to do the same thing for an extended period of time. Although the resource units have been written to provide a variety within the present order of procedures, the main responsibility for providing this variety must lie with the teacher. Since she will not use all of the procedures suggested in the resource units and since she will add others, she could end up with little variety from day to day or on one day. Moreover, she will get behind in her plans or shift her plans somewhat from day to day depending upon what happens in class. This does not mean that she must make marked changes in the flow of procedures. It does mean that even a teaching unit must be adjusted from day to day. Few teachers, if they are flexible enough to take into account pupil questions and interests, can build lesson plans for even one week without making adjustments from day to day. These plans will fit into the overall unit, but the unit cannot be developed ahead of time merely as a set of lesson plans to be followed day after day. Consequently, small adjustments in the order of procedures may have to be made each day in order to provide variety in the lesson.

The teacher must keep in mind other questions as she decides which procedures to omit or which new procedures to add. First, has she kept at least some procedures to teach each of the objectives she has decided to try to achieve? If not, can she add others to achieve these ends? Second, has she kept procedures to teach all of the content suggested? If not, does she think this content should be taught? If so, she must think of other ways of presenting it. At the present time there are a number of suggestions to teach most of the objectives and even a number to teach some of the same content. The content must also be cut if all of the procedures designed to teach it are omitted, unless others are substituted.

These resource units are already voluminous. It is impossible to suggest all of the ways in which one procedure might be varied or one material might be used. Naturally, pupils could prepare written reports rather than oral reports on certain topics. Or an oral report could be turned into a group report or role-playing. Or pupils might present the same material through charts or bulletin board displays, through mock newspapers, through dittoed written reports, etc. The decision on which form to use may depend upon the teacher's assessment of how important it is for the entire class to obtain the information, upon the extent to which she has relied upon certain types of activities in the last unit, and upon her assessment of the relative effectiveness of using oral reports in a particular class. Of course written reports or other types of written materials can be dittoed for class use, and charts and bul-

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF THESE MATERIALS

The Curriculum Center at the University of Minnesota had as its major goal the development and try-out of a new curricular framework for grades K-12. The basic assumptions of the staff and the criteria for selecting topics are discussed in the Center's Background Paper # 1. A tentative curricular framework was used in developing a series of resource units and sample pupil materials at various levels where they were needed. No attempt was made to develop a complete set of materials for pupils. Rather, the aim was to try out the curriculum, using as many materials available from other sources as possible, and supplementing these materials with a few developed by the Center only where they were needed in order to teach the units. At some future date, members of the staff may work with publishers and audio-visual producers to develop more complete sets of materials. However, tryout of these materials has shown that the sixth grade course can be taught with materials currently available.

A background paper for the course, identifying the important topics to be taught in each unit, was written by the staff's historian, Robert F. Berkhofer, Jr. The resource units were written by Genevieve Berkhofer and Robert Beery of the Center's staff, and Betty Lou Waszut of the Brooklyn Park Public Schools. All of the work was coordinated by Mrs. Berkhofer.

The units were tried out under the general supervision of Mrs. Berkhofer by one or more teachers in the following public schools of Minnesota: Robbinsdale, Richfield, and Mahtomedi. The units were then revised by Mrs. Berkhofer and Edith West.

The Center's staff members wish to thank Mrs. Waszut and the following teachers who served as project associates during the first year of tryout and who provided valuable suggestions for changes and additions: Mrs. Virginia Schaefer and Miss Betty Miller of the Richfield Public Schools, Mr. Kenneth Wharton of the Mahtomedi Public Schools, and Mr. Richard Earl and Frank Dimberio of the Robbinsdale Public Schools. The Center is indeed grateful for their help. The Center's staff would welcome additional suggestions from others who use the course in the future.

SEQUENTIAL DEVELOPMENT OF SKILLS	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	R
ATTACKS PROBLEMS IN A RATIONAL MANNER.				
1. Is alert to incongruities and recognizes problems.	X			
*2. Sets up hypotheses.	X	X		
3. Identifies value-conflicts.				
LOCATES INFORMATION EFFICIENTLY.				
*1. Uses the index in a book to locate information.	X			
*2. Skims to locate information.		X	X	
3. Knows where to look to obtain first-hand accounts.		X		
*4. Uses encyclopedias.		X		
GATHERS INFORMATION EFFECTIVELY.				
1. Uses effective reading skills; reads with understanding.	X			
a. Reads to find answers to questions.	X	X	X	
*b. Reads for main idea or ideas.	X	X		
c. Reads for details.	X			
*1) Reads for details which support or contradict generalizations and main ideas.				
d. Reads to organize what is read.	X		X	
e. Adjusts reading rate to purpose in reading.		X		
*f. Takes effective notes on reading.	X	X		
*2. Gains information by studying pictures.	X	X	X	
*a. Draws inferences from pictures.				
*3. Gains information by studying films.	X	X	X	
*4. Gains information by constructing and using models.	X		X	
5. Gains information in the process of developing murals.	X			
*6. Gains information by listening.	X	X		
a. Identifies the main idea of an oral presentation.				

F SKILLS	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settle-ment	Am. Revolu-tion	Nat'l Ex-pansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
TIONAL MANNER. ities and recog-	X						
	X	X			X	X	X
flicts.						X	
CIENTLY. book to locate in-	X						
rmation.		X	X				
to obtain first-		X					
		X					
CTIVELY. ng skills; reads	X					X	
swers to questions.	X	X	X				
dea or ideas.	X	X				X	
s.	X						
tails which sup- radict generali- main ideas.				X		X	
e what is read.	X		X			X	
rate to purpose		X					
notes on reading.	X	X					
studying pictures.	X	X	X		X	X	X
from pictures.							X
studying films.	X	X	X	X		X	
constructing and	X		X			X	
the process of	X						
listening.	X	X			X	X	
in idea of an .						X	

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution
b. Listens for details.				X
*c. Listens to discussion for main ideas, supporting detail, and to evaluate what he hears.				X
d. Takes effective notes on oral activities, including discussions, pupil reports, and informal talks or lectures.				
7. Gains information by studying artifacts.	X			
8. Uses sub-questions to guide him in collecting relevant data.			X	X
*9. Interprets graphs.				
EVALUATES INFORMATION AND SOURCES OF INFORMATION.				
+1. Checks on the accuracy of information and decides how much faith to put in the source.	X	X	X	
*a. Distinguishes between primary sources and secondary accounts.	X	X		
*b. Checks on the bias and competency of witnesses and other authors.	X	X	X	
*1) Notes whether an author would be hurt by an opposite report, what his purpose was in preparing his account, what attitudes he expresses, what connections he may have which might affect his attitudes.		X	X	
c. Compares sources of information.		X		
*1) Looks for points of agreement and disagreement among witnesses and authors.	X	X	X	X
2) Chooses the most reliable source of information in terms of bias and competency of authors.		X	X	X

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	Nat'l Expansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
or details.				X			
o discussion for main pporting detail, and to what he hears.				X		X	
ective notes on oral s, including discussions, orts, and informal talks es.							X
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aphs.							X
TION AND SOURCES OF IN- accuracy of information w much faith to put in	X	X	X		X	X	X
shes between primary nd secondary accounts.	X	X					X
the bias and competency ses and other authors.	X	X	X			X	X
whether an author would rt by an opposite report, is purpose was in pre- his account, what at- es he expresses, what con- ons he may have which affect his attitudes.		X	X				X
ources of information.		X			X	X	
for points of agreement isagreement among witnesses uthors.	X	X	X	X	X		X
es the most reliable source formation in terms of bias mpetency of authors.		X	X	X			

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settle-ment
+d. Checks facts against his own background of information and collects information when he needs it to check the facts.		X	X
2. Differentiates between statements of fact and statements of opinion.			
3. Distinguishes between facts and estimates.			
*4. Checks on the completeness of data and is wary of generalizations based on insufficient evidence.		X	
5. Distinguishes between relevant and irrevelant information.			
6. Detects inconsistencies.			
USES EFFECTIVE GEOGRAPHIC SKILLS.	X		
*1. Interprets maps.	X		
*a. Interprets map symbols according to the map legend.		X	
*b. Draws inferences from maps.	X		
*1) Draws inferences from a comparison of different map patterns of the same area.		X	
2. Uses maps to depict information in order to identify patterns in data.	X		
3. Compares population data.	X		
*4. Compares areas with known areas.		X	
HAS A SENSE OF TIME.			
*1. Looks for relationships among events.			
*2. Makes and uses timelines.		X	
a. Makes and uses parallel timelines.		X	
*3. Compares lengths of periods or events.		X	
ORGANIZES AND ANALYZES INFORMATION AND DRAWS CONCLUSIONS.			
*1. Applies previously-learned concepts and generalizations to new data.	X	X	

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settle-ment	Am. Revolu-tion	Nat'l Ex-pansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
st his own back- on and collects needs it to		X	X	X	X		
statements of opinion.							X
acts and esti-						X	
ness of data and ons based on		X		X	X	X	X
elevant and ir-							X
.						X	
KILLS.	X						
	X				X		
ols according		X				X	
om maps.	X					X	X
s from a com- erent map same area.		X			X	X	
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a.	X						
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s.		X					
llel timelines.		X					
ods or events.		X					
RMATION AND ned concepts ew data.	X	X			X	X	X

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	Nat' Expans
*2. Classifies or categorizes data.	X	X		X	X
*3. Tests hypotheses against data.		X			
a. Revises hypotheses where necessary.					
*4. Generalizes from data.	X	X	X	X	X
5. Makes participant-observer distinctions.	X				
*6. Organizes his information according to some logical pattern which fits his topic.	X	X			
*a. Organizes his material to fit this theme and follows his organization.	X			X	
*7. Identifies differences in data					
WORKS EFFECTIVELY WITH OTHERS.					
1. Schedules work on group projects and helps to schedule.		X			
*2. Is able to empathize with others, seeing things through their eyes.					X

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	Nat'l Expansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
categorizes data.	X	X		X	X		
ses against data.		X				X	X
ypotheses where neces-							X
rom data.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
pant-observer distinc-	X						X
information according al pattern which fits	X	X				X	
his material to fit this follows his organization.	X			X			
fferences in data							X
WITH OTHERS. k on group projects and dule.		X					
pathize with others, see- rough their eyes.					X	X	X

SEQUENTIAL DEVELOPMENT OF ATTITUDINAL BEHAVIOR	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution
*1. Is curious about social data and desires to read and study further in the social sciences.	X	X	X	
2. Is committed to the free examination of social attitudes and data.				
*3. Is sceptical of conventional truths and demands that widely-held and popular notions be judged in accordance with standards of empirical validation.				
*a. Respects evidence even when it contradicts prejudices and preconceptions.		X		
*4. Desires to keep his values from affecting his interpretation of evidence, although recognizing the important role of values in the process of making decisions.				
*5. Evaluates information and sources of information before accepting evidence and conclusions.	X	X		
*6. Is sceptical of single-factor causation in the social sciences.				
*7. Is sceptical of panaceas or easy solutions to social problems.				
8. Is sceptical of simplistic moral judgements.				
*9. Appreciates and respects the cultural contributions of other races.				
*10. Believes that people of different interests, abilities, and background can contribute to American society.				
*11. Values human dignity.				
12. Evaluates proposals and events on the basis of their effects upon individuals as human beings.				

ENT OF ATTITUDINAL TOR	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	Nat'l Expansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
social data and desires y further in the social	X	X	X		X	X	X
the free examination of and data.						X	X
conventional truths and ely-held and popular ed in accordance with irical validation.						X	X
idence even when it con- ejudices and precon-		X					
his values from affect- tation of evidence, zing the important role process of making						X	
ation and sources of re accepting evidence	X	X					X
single-factor causa- al sciences.						X	
panaceas or easy solu- problems.							X
simplistic moral judge-							X
respects the cultural other races.							X
ople of different in- es, and background American society.						X	
nity.							X
als and events on the ffects upon individuals							X

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution
*13. Is sensitive to the feelings of others.				
14. Treats people as individuals, not as members of a particular group.				
15. Desires to protect the rights of minorities.				
16. Believes in equality of opportunity for all.				
17. Accepts his share of responsibility for the work of a group; participates actively without trying to dominate.				

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settle-ment	Am. Revolu-tion	Nat'l Ex-pansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
the feelings of others.						X	
s individuals, not as rticular group.						X	
ect the rights of						X	
ality of opportunity						X	
re of responsibility a group; participates t trying to dominate.						X	

SEQUENTIAL DEVELOPMENT OF CONCEPTS

	Indian Am.	Fr. & **Spanish** Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Rev.	Na Ex
GEOGRAPHIC CONCEPTS					
*1. Location	X	X	X		
*a. Situation	X				
*1) Relationships					
*2) Change					
*b. Site	X	X	X		
*1) Landforms	X				
*a) Mountains					
*b) Plains					
*2) Water	X	X			
*a) River		X			
*b) Lake	X				
*3) Climate					
*a) Precipitation					
*b) Temperature					
*4) Vegetation					
*a) Forest					
*b) Grasslands					
*5) Cultural features					
*a) Village	X	X	X		
*b) City				X	
c) See 6) below					
*6) Change -- man-made					
*a) Canals					
*b) Construction of land transportation routes					
*2. Diversity or variability	X				
*3. Cultural Use of Environment	X	X	X		
*a. Ways of making a living	X	X	X		
*1) Hunting	X	X			
*2) Farming		X	X		
*3) Industry					

SEQUENTIAL DEVELOPMENT OF CONCEPTS

PTS	Indian Am.	Fr. & Spanish Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Rev.	National Expansion	Civil War	Expansion to Great Plains
	X	X	X		X	X	X
n	X				X		X
tionships					X		X
ge					X		X
	X	X	X		X		X
forms	X				X		X
Mountains					X		
Plains							X
r	X	X			X		
River		X			X		
Lake	X						
ate							X
Precipitation							X
Temperature							X
ation					X		X
Forest					X		
Grasslands							X
ural features							
Village	X	X	X				
City				X		X	
See 6) below							
e -- man-made					X		X
Canals					X		
onstruction of land transportation routes					X		X
variability	X				X		X
of Environment	X	X	X		X		X
aking a living	X	X	X		X		X
ng	X	X					X
ng		X	X		X		X
try						X	

	Indian Am.	Fr. & Spanish Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Rev.	Nat Exp
*b. Transportation					
*c. Technology					
*4. Interrelatedness	X	X	X	X	
*a. Trade	X	X	X	X	
*b. Migration		X	X		
ECONOMIC CONCEPTS					
*1. Output					
a. Technological development					
*2. Exchange					
*a. Barter					
b. See trade above					
c. See price below					
*3. Economic system	X	X	X		
*a. Price					
*1) Supply					
*2) Demand					
CULTURE					
*1. Norms and values	X	X	X		
*2. Learned behavior patterns	X				
*3. Diversity	X	X			
*4. Uniqueness	X	X			
*5. Universals (and psychic unity of mankind)	X				
*6. Change	X	X	X	X	
*a. Diffusion		X	X		
*b. Invention	X	X			
*7. Continuity					
8. Sub-culture					
9. Cultural perceptions	X	X	X		
*10. Cultural use of environment (see above)	X	X	X		
11. Integration of culture	X				
12. Attitudes					
*a. Racism					

	Indian Am.	Fr. & Spanish Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Rev.	National Expansion	Civil War	Expansion to Great Plains
nsportation					X	X	X
nology						X	X
atedness	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
ie	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
ration		X	X		X		X
CEPTS							
nological development						X	X
						X	X
er							
trade above							X
price below							
system	X	X	X				
e							X
Supply							X
Demand							X
							X
d values	X	X	X			X	X
behavior patterns	X					X	X
y	X	X				X	X
ss	X	X				X	X
is (and psychic unity of	X					X	X
	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
nsion		X	X				X
ntion	X	X					
ty							
re						X	X
perceptions	X	X	X			X	X
use of environment re)	X	X	X		X		X
on of culture	X						X
						X	
m						X	

	Indian Am.	Fr. & Spanish Settlement	English Settlement
13. Stereotypes			
SOCIAL PROCESSES			
*1. Socialization	X		
*2. Conflict	X		
a. Power	X		
b. Cultural			
*c. War	X		
*d. Revolution			
e. Political			
*3. Application of sanctions to achieve social control	X		
*4. Accommodation	X		
a. Compromise			
*5. Communication	X		
a. Written	X		
b. Political			
6. Discrimination			
7. Agglomeration			
8. Decision-making			
SOCIAL ORGANIZATION			
*1. Roles	X		
*2. Division of responsibility and labor	X		
*3. Stratification and class	X		
*a. Status	X		
*b. Social mobility	X		
*c. Caste			
4. Minority group			
*5. Functions	X		
*6. Leadership	X		
*7. Institutions			
*a. Family	X		
*b. Church or religion	X	X	X
*c. Government or political	X		

	Indian Am.	Fr. & Spanish Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Rev.	National Expansion	Civil War	Expansion to Great Plains
						X	
	X					X	X
	X			X		X	X
	X					X	X
						X	X
	X			X		X	X
				X			
				X		X	
nctions to achieve	X					X	X
	X						
						X	
	X			X		X	X
	X						
				X		X	
						X	
						X	
						X	
	X						X
nsibility and	X					X	X
class	X					X	
	X					X	X
y	X					X	X
						X	
						X	
	X						X
	X			X			X
						X	
	X				X	X	X
gion	X	X	X				X
political	X						

	Indian Am.	Fr. & Spanish Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Rev.	Natio Expa
*d. Economic	X	X	X		
8. Group cohesion					
9. Centralization				X	
OTHERS					
1. Self					
a. Internalized values					
2. Rationalization					
3. Frustration					
4. Democratic system					
5. National power					
a. Alliances					

	Indian Am.	Fr. & Spanish Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Rev.	National Expansion	Civil War	Expansion to Great Plains
	X	X	X				X
						X	
				X			
						X	
ed values						X	
n						X	
						X	
tem						X	
						X	
						X	X

SEQUENTIAL DEVELOPMENT OF GENERALIZATIONS	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settle- ment	Am. Revolu tion
*1. Ways of living differ from one society to another; indeed, each culture is unique.	X	X		
#a. Social organization differs from one society to another.	X			
*1) Families differ widely from society to society as to how they are organized (in their structure).	X			
+a) Families in the same society may differ as to structure.	X			
#2) Methods of mate selection vary from one society to another.	X			
#3) Societies differ in the relative number of ascribed and achieved statuses they provide and the relative emphasis upon each.	X			
*b. Economic organization differs from one society to another.	X			
c. Political organization differs from one society to another.	X			
* d. Although all societies have some kind of religion(s), religious beliefs differ from society to society.	X			
+e. People in different societies and in different groups within a society differ as to how they expect people to act and as to what they think good and bad.				

* Introduced in an earlier course.
+ Introduced in part in an earlier course.

# Taught but not listed as
X An objective of this un
x Taught but not listed as

MENT OF GENERALIZATIONS	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	Nat'l Expansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
; differ from one so- ier; indeed, each cul- .	X	X				X	X
anization differs from y to another.	X						X
es differ widely from y to society as to how re organized (in their ure).	X					X	X
milies in the same so- ety may differ as to ructure.	X					X	
s of mate selection vary ne society to another.	X						
ies differ in the rela- umber of ascribed and ed statuses they pro- nd the relative emphasis ach.	X						
rganization differs from y to another.	X						X
organization differs ociety to another.	X						X
ll societies have some igion(s), religious ffer from society to	X						X
ifferent societies and t groups within a so- r as to how they expect ct and as to what they and bad.						X	X

earlier course.
t in an earlier course.

# Taught but not listed as an objective of an earlier course.
X An objective of this unit.
x Taught but not listed as an objective of this unit.

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	
*2. All people, regardless of where or when they lived or to what race, nationality or religion they belonged, have had many things in common.	X				
*a. All people, everywhere have certain basic drives, although they satisfy them differently.	X				
b. Any organized group delegates responsibilities and rights; they assign certain role behaviors; this division of labor creates hierachial authority relationships.	X				
*1) Families in all societies delegate responsibilities and rights (specific roles) to different family members; age and sex are principles used in all societies to differentiate family roles and status.	X				
c. Every society provides for the differentiation of status among its members. In some societies certain material objects become status symbols.	X				
*d. All societies have potential conflict and must develop means of trying to settle disputes and accommodate differences.	X				
e. There is almost always some marriage ceremony or ritual to symbolize contractual and future mutual obligations.	X				
*f. All societies develop rules for tracing kinship and thus the group to which people can turn first for help in time of need.	X				

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	Nat'l Expansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
e, regardless of where or lived or to what race, na- or religion they belonged, any things in common.	X					X	X
eople, everywhere have cer- asic drives, although they y them differently.	X						X
rganized group delegates re- ibilities and rights; they certain role behaviors; ivision of labor creates chial authority relation- .	X						X
milies in all societies elegate responsibilities and ghts (specific roles) to ifferent family members; age nd sex are principles used all societies to differen- iate family roles and status.	X						
society provides for the dif- tiation of status among its rs. In some societies cer- aterial objects become status s.	X						X
cieties have potential con- and must develop means of to settle disputes and ac- ate differences.	X						
is almost always some mar- ceremony or ritual to sym- contractual and future obligations.	X						
cieties develop rules for kinship and thus the group ch people can turn first for n time of need.	X						

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution
*g. All societies have some type of religion(s).	x			
*h. In all societies people are expected to behave in certain ways and to believe that certain things are good and certain things are bad.	x	x	x	
3. Not all members of any group are exactly alike.				
4. A given culture is an integrated whole, based on fundamental postulates or values. Two cultures might have the same list of traits but the way they are put together might be totally different.	X			
*5. People everywhere must learn to behave the way they do, just as we learn to behave in the ways we do. (Culture is learned, not inborn.)	X			
*a. People direct expectations (organized into roles) toward both children and other adults. They reinforce these expectations with positive and negative sanctions.				
*1) Within the family, the parents, older siblings, and/or other relatives direct expectations (organized into roles) toward the child.	X			
2) The child, and later the adult, internalizes expectations and acts out roles according to the way he interprets expectations and defines the situation.				

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	Nat'l Expansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
ies have some type of).	x						X
ieties people are ex- behave in certain ways ieve that certain good and certain bad.	x	x	x				X
s of any group are						X	
is an integrated fundamental postu- s. Two cultures might list of traits but the ut together might be ent.	X						X
ere must learn to behave o, just as we learn to ays we do. (Culture is nborn.)	X					X	X
ect expectations (or- to roles) toward both d other adults. They hese expectations with d negative sanctions.						X	X
the family, the parents, iblings, and/or other es direct expectations zed into roles) toward ld.	X						
ld, and later the adult, lizes expectations and t roles according to the interprets expectations ines the situation.						X	

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settle- ment	Am. Revol tion
b. Through the process of socialization, individuals become members of a group by learning role expectations and to perform a wide variety of tasks.	X			
+1) The process of socialization takes place through a number of social agencies.	X			
c. Freedom is culturally determined; the individual has to be taught what the options are, how one goes about exercising them, why he should exercise them.				
d. A person's frame of reference is affected by his total life experiences and affects his perceptions and interpretations.	X			
+1) A person's frame of reference affects his perceptions and interpretations.		X		
e. An individual brought up in one culture and then thrust into another faces serious problems of adjustment to the new culture; the resulting culture conflict involves mental conflict and tension.				
6. Social control is enforced by social sanctions, formal and informal.				
7. Written language facilitates communication and the development of an ongoing culture.	X			
8. Communication may be hampered by language and culture barriers as well as by physical barriers.				

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	Nat'l Expansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
the process of socializa- ndividuals become members oup by learning role ex- ons and to perform a wide of tasks.	X						X
process of socialization s place through a number ocial agencies.	X						
is culturally determined; vidual has to be taught options are, how one goes ercising them, why he xercise them.						X	
's frame of reference is by his total life ex- s and affects his per- and interpretations.	X						X
rson's frame of reference cts his perceptions and rpretations.		X					
idual brought up in one and then thrust into an- ces serious problems of nt to the new culture; lting culture conflict mental conflict and						X	X
ol is enforced by social rmal and informal.						X	X
uage facilitates communi- he development of an on- e.	X						
n may be hampered by culture barriers as well al barriers.						X	X

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settle-ment	Am. Revol tion
*9. Whenever things valued by a society are scarce, there will be differentiated access to and control of these scarce and valued things by sub-groups within the society.	X			
10. Groups may engage in power conflict; one group tries to dominate another in order to take something from it, such as labor or wealth.	X			
11. In political conflict there is a struggle over goals; the conflicting sides attempt to use the authority of the political system to win the conflict.				
12. Conflict with another group leads to the mobilization of the energies of group members and to increased cohesion of the group.				
13. There are usually multiple, interrelated causes for wars.				
+14. Wars have a serious impact upon both soldiers and civilians.				
15. People may increase their power by working together.				
+a. Countries (or societies) seek to increase their power by gaining alliances with other countries (or societies).				
16. Military power is an important factor in the development of national power, but not the only or even the dominant one.				
17. Differences in population, resources, and economy may be reflected in differences in national power; that is to say, they are important bases or components of national power.				

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	Nat'l Ex. pansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
valued by a society re will be differen- o and control of d valued things by in the society.	X					X	
ge in power conflict; to dominate another e something from it, r wealth.	X					X	X
nflict there is a oals; the conflicting o use the authority l system to win the						X	
nother group leads to n of the energies of ad to increased co- roup.						X	
y multiple, inter- or wars.						X	
ous impact upon both ilians.						X	X
ase their power by .						X	
r societies) seek to ir power by gaining th other countries s).						X	
s an important factor nt of national power, or even the dominant						X	
pulation, resources, e reflected in dif- nal power; that is to ortant bases or com- al power.						X	

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution
18. Compromise is easier where there is not an ideological perception of the issues; that is, where the issues are not moralized and not seen as related to other issues.				
19. Accommodation is possible only if the antagonistic powers are aware of the relative strength of the parties.		X		
*20. Governments provide services which people cannot provide individually for themselves. For example, they provide protection both from within and from the outside.	X			
a. The community demands security--a goal which may be incompatible with the demands of individuals.				
21. The contrast between democratic and undemocratic political systems may be looked at as a conflict in basic underlying values.				
22. Any decision is in part a product of the internalized values and the perceptions of the persons making the decision.				
23. Individuals know the political system and people of other countries and groups as a set of images and pictures created for them by communicators; they react to these images rather than to the real world and real people.				
a. Most political communication depends on the use of symbols, stereotypes, and other communication shortcuts; effective communication depends on the effective manipulation of these symbolic tools.				X

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	Nat'l Expansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
easier where there is ogical perception of the is, where the issues are and not seen as related ues.						X	
is possible only if the powers are aware of the ngth of the parties.		X					
rovide services which provide individually s. For example, they ction both from within outside.	X						
nity demands security-- ich may be incompatible demands of individuals.						X	
between democratic and political systems may as a conflict in basic lues.						X	
is in part a product of zed values and the per- he persons making the						X	
ow the political system other countries and et of images and pic- for them by communica- act to these images the real world and						X	
tical communication de- the use of symbols, es, and other communica- tcuts; effective communi- pends on the effective ion of these symbolic tools.				X		X	

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settle-ment	Am. Revolu tion
b. Effective political communication depends both on technological skills and on the skills of the population (literacy or at least a common language).				
c. Public opinion and propaganda may help bring about wars.				
24. Non-governmental groups may be enemies of freedom and may deprive the individual of options just as surely as the government may.				
25. Whether an increase in centralization accompanies the increase in cohesion that accompanies or follows group conflict depends upon both the character of the conflict and the type of group.				X
26. An institution is an interrelated cluster of roles and the attached meanings and values. Every member of a group has a position in relation to every other member of the group. For every position there is a fairly well-defined way of behaving (or a role) known both to the holder of the position and to the other members of the group.				
a. Any organization delegates responsibilities and rights; it assigns certain role behaviors. This division of labor creates hierarchial authority relationships.		X		
27. Discrimination against minority group members tends to isolate members of the group and promotes retention of their cultural values and norms.				

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	Nat'l Expansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
ive political communication both on technological and on the skills of the tion (literacy or at least n language).						X	
opinion and propaganda may ring about wars.						X	
ental groups may be enemies and may deprive the in- options just as surely as ent may.						X	
increase in centralization the increase in cohesion panies or follows group con- ds upon both the character lict and the type of group.				X			
ion is an interrelated roles and the attached mean- lues. Every member of a position in relation to member of the group. For ion there is a fairly well- of behaving (or a role) to the holder of the posi- the other members of the						X	
anization delegates re- ilities and rights; it as- ertain role behaviors. vision of labor creates hial authority relation-		X					X
ion against minority group ds to isolate members of the romotes retention of their lues and norms.						X	

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	R
28. The easier it is to distinguish a minority group by some physical characteristic, the harder it is for that group to gain full acceptance by the wider society and to move out of one social class into another one.				
29. The nature of discrimination and prejudice against a specific group is the result of particular group interactions over time.				
30. People try to work out rationalizations for actions which are inconsistent with their basic values.				
a. Racism is a relatively recent development which has served as a rationalization for discrimination against other races.				
b. Racial beliefs involve strongly-held attitudes which affect behavior both at the conscious and unconscious level.				
31. People frequently base their actions upon a stereotype or a generalized picture which assigns to all members of a group a set of characteristics which are true for only some of them.				
32. Frustration may result in aggression (physical or non-physical).				
33. Frustration and self-doubts may lead to apathy.				
*34. Although culture is always changing, certain parts or elements may persist over long periods of time.	X	X	x	

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	Nat'l Expansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
t is to distinguish a up by some physical ic, the harder it is up to gain full ac- the wider society and of one social class in- ne.						X	
f discrimination and ainst a specific group t of particular group over time.						X	
o work out rationalizations which are incon- their basic values.						X	X
s a relatively recent de- t which has served as a ization for discrimina- inst other races.						X	
eliefs involve strongly- itudes which affect be- oth at the conscious and ous level.						X	
ently base their actions otype or a generalized h assigns to all members set of characteristics ue for only some of them.						X	X
nay result in aggression non-physical).						X	
nd self-doubts may lead						X	
ture is always changing, s or elements may per- ng periods of time.	X	X	x	X	x	X	X

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settle-ment	Am Revo tio
+a. Culture traits may change as a result of both innovation and borrowing traits from other societies (diffusion).		X		
*1) Culture traits may change through a process of diffusion.				
*a) The migration of peoples from one part of the world to another also involves the movement of culture and material objects, thus resulting in changes in the use of the area to which the people migrate.		X	X	
b. People usually do not discard a trait completely; they are more likely to modify it to fit into new situations.				
*c. Persistence of cultural traits may be a result of the lack of exposure to conditions which further change.				
*d. Some values are conducive to change; some make change difficult.				
*e. Changes in one aspect of culture will have effects on other aspects; changes will ramify whether they are technological, in social organization, in ideology, or whatever else is a part of the cultural system.				
f. Change in society is likely to occur more frequently or readily in the less basic, less emotionally charged, more technical aspects				

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	Nat'l Expansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
ts may change as a th innovation and aits from other so- fusion).		X					
traits may change a process of dif-							X
nigration of peoples one part of the world nother also involves novement of culture naterial objects, thus lting in changes in use of the area to n the people migrate.		X	X		X		X
ly do not discard a tely; they are more dify it to fit into ns.							X
of cultural traits may of the lack of exposure s which further change.							X
re conducive to change; ange difficult.							X
ne aspect of culture fects on other aspects; ramify whether they ical, in social or- n ideology, or what- a part of the cultural					X	X	X
iety is likely to oc- quently or readily in c, less emotionally technical aspects							X

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution
than in such things as basic values, primary group relations, religious beliefs, and prestige systems.				
g. That which is learned in early childhood tends to be most resistant to change.				
h. To be successful, a person who tries to introduce change into a society must analyze many factors before selecting techniques to be used.				
*35. Temperature is affected by the distance from the equator, elevation, distance from warm water bodies, wind patterns including prevailing winds, and physical features which block winds from certain directions.				
*a. Places in the interior of continents tend to have greater extremes of temperature than places along the coast.				
*36. Rainfall is affected by distance from bodies of warm water, wind direction, temperature, and physical features which block winds carrying moisture.				
*37. Vegetation is affected by temperature, rainfall, and soil.				
*38. Man uses his physical environment in terms of his cultural values, perceptions, and level of technology. (Or: People living in the same type of environment use it differently, depending upon their cultural values, knowledge, and technology.)	X	X	X	

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	Nat'l Expansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
h things as basic values, up relations, religious d prestige systems.							
is learned in early child- to be most resistant to						X	
ssful, a person who troduce change into a t analyze many factors cting techniques to be							X
affected by the distance r, elevation, distance bodies, wind patterns iling winds, and physi- ich block winds from ons.							X
he interior of continents e greater extremes of than places along the							X
ected by distance from water, wind direction, d physical features s carrying moisture.							X
fected by temperature, oil.							X
ysical environment in ltural values, percep- of technology. (Or: the same type of en- differently, depend- ultural values, knowl- logy.)	X	X	X			X	X

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settle-ment	Am. Revolu-tion
*a. The migration of peoples from one part of the world to another also involves the movement of culture and material objects, thus resulting in changes in the use of the area to which the people migrate.		X	X	
*b. Types of agriculture in a region depend upon man's cultural values, perceptions, and level of technology, as well as upon climate, soils, and topography.	X			
*c. The topography of a region may present limitations given a specific level of technology; however, man has learned to overcome many of the earlier limitations.	X			
*d. The significance of location depends upon cultural developments both within and outside a country.				
*1) A change in situation brings about a corresponding change in the use of a site.				
*a) Improved transportation facilities make possible wider and bigger markets as well as better and less costly access to resources.				
*39. Division of labor and specialization make possible increased production.	X			
40. Machinery and power make it possible to increase production and the precision with which products are made and to make new products.				

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	Nat'l Expansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
peoples from one d to another also ement of culture ects, thus result- n the use of the e people migrate.		X	X		X		X
ture in a region 's cultural values, level of technol- upon climate, soils,	X				X		
a region may pre- given a specific ogy; however, man vercome many of tations.	X				X		
of location depends velopments both with- country.							X
ituation brings esponding change a site.					X		X
transportation es make possible bigger markets s better and less ccess to resources.					X		X
specialization sed production.	X						
ake it possible n and the preci- cts are made and						X	

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution
*41. Some things can be produced better in one place than in another because of climate, resources, transportation routes, access to resources, access to markets, people's skills, etc.				
*a. A place needs cheap and rapid transportation in order to carry on much trade with other places.				
*42. Specialization of individuals and regions makes for interdependence.	X			
*a. People who live in one community depend upon each other for different goods and services and for markets for their goods.	X			
*b. People in most societies of the world depend upon people who live in other communities and regions for goods and services and for markets for their goods.	X			
43. Poor living conditions, long hours of hard work, poor diet and poor health affect a person's ambition and his ability to work.				
*44. Some societies use barter rather than money in the exchange of goods and services. Barter consists of the exchange of goods and services for other goods and services, without the ----use of money.	X			
*45. Prices are affected by supply and demand. (Other things being equal, the price of a good rises when the good is in short supply as compared to the demand for the good.)				
*46. Maps make it possible to discern patterns and relationships among a vast amount of data.				

	Indian America	Spanish and French Settlement	English Settlement	Am. Revolution	Nat'l Expansion	Civil War and Reconst.	Expansion to Great Plains
s can be produced better ce than in another because resources, transportation ess to resources, access people's skills, etc.					X		
needs cheap and rapid rtation in order to carry trade with other places.							X
ion of individuals and es for interdependence.	X						
who live in one community upon each other for different goods and services and for s for their goods.	X						
in most societies of the epend upon people who live r communities and regions ds and services and for s for their goods.	X						X
conditions, long hours of poor diet and poor health rson's ambition and his work.						X	
ies use barter rather than e exchange of goods and Barter consists of the exoods and services for and services, without the y.	X						X
ffected by supply and der things being equal, the ood rises when the good is pply as compared to the de- e good.)						X	
t possible to discern patelationships among a vast ta.					X		X

The Sixth Grade Curriculum
on
The Formation of American Society

Robert Berkhofer

The sixth grade curriculum builds upon the work of previous grades' coverage of families, communities, and regions in an attempt to teach the history of North American settlement and the development of the American nation. For this reason, the course stresses the migration of families and communities, their settlement patterns, their architectural and material artifacts as clues to social and cultural changes over time. Different social and cultural systems differentiate different eras. While this goal resembles that traditionally found in the lower level American history course, this curriculum hopes to use the concrete relationships exemplified in family, community, land pattern, buildings, and customs more than ever before to stand for the abstract concepts and systems of which they are a part and which, in actuality, they represent.

Such an approach can easily lapse into crude material and geographical determinism unless the teacher is careful to avoid such implications. Equally important, the teacher must avoid the American derivative of such economic and geographic determinism, namely, the frontier hypothesis as an explanation of historical change. Throughout this grade, comparison both between national societies and within national societies is emphasized to avoid these pitfalls. If the teacher demonstrates that differences exist simultaneously in the same physical environment as well as over time, the student will not reach erroneous conclusions long hallowed by a mythical American heritage.

The teacher, however, in presenting different epochs through different customs and artifacts, should not deny the continuity of societies and cultures. Comparison should not only enable a student to perceive change, but comparison between eras should also give a student an idea of the continuity of a society's culture -- a continuity that constitutes the genetic history of that society's culture. In American history, the student should perceive both how the United States differs from the Jamestown and Plymouth settlements and also how in the broad outlines, these early colonies laid the foundations for American civilization -- a civilization that would have been far different, for example, if the Chinese had settled the Pacific Coast and swept eastward across the continent.

The extent to which abstract generalizations pertaining to socio-cultural systems can be taught to sixth graders is problematical. Much that relates to the political, economic, and religious sectors of a culture as system cannot be taught in all probability. For this reason, such political history as constitution-making and party-formation and such economic developments as the rise and impact of industrialism have been left for the tenth grade course in American history. Yet much remains, and many of these abstractions can be taught through pictures, maps, and artifacts. Thus this course outline stresses the visual as an aid to comprehending the abstract.

UNIT I: INDIAN AMERICA

Pre-white contact Indian cultures are selected to demonstrate not only different life-ways involving different political, social, religious and other patterns (at different levels of technological advancement) but also to provide significant bases for culture conflict as it developed between these cultures and the Spanish, French, and English settlers in a later period. For these purposes, it was felt that three cultures* involved the minimum possible number to both indicate diversity of pattern and yet provide the various basic combinations of early and late contact conditions for white European contact. The Aztec society illustrates a highly-developed North American Indian culture and is useful for early Spanish contact; the Iroquois show a semi-sedentary Indian tribe and early French and English contact; while the Plains Indians demonstrate horse culture on the plains and later Spanish and Anglo-American conflict. In each case the teacher is to develop the complete culture of the Indians as a unique way of life to teach the culture concept as well as to compare the cultures in order to reinforce the culture-as-a-system idea. In addition, the teacher must stress the Indian way of life as a prelude to possible Indian-White conflict, accommodation, and acculturation.

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*The first two cultures on the Aztecs and the Iroquois are to be taught in unit one. The third on the Plains Indians is to be taught in the unit on Westward Expansion in order to contrast their use of the plains with that of the white men and to clarify ideas about culture contact on the plains. However, the Plains Indians will be discussed in this section to help the teacher note differences within Indian America.

The following pages do not treat each Indian culture in its entirety but rather outlines those central themes of each society's culture that seem particularly teachable and will satisfy the criteria of both uniqueness and later Indian-White relations. In keeping with the entire course, building types, village layouts, and artifacts are used to engender interest in that society and to point to the larger patterns of that culture.

Part A: The Aztec Civilization

Since the average American youth's sterotype of the Indian is probably the warrior of the plains, the Aztecs should come as a delightful surprise because of their more complex social organization and rudimentary writing system.

The easiest aspect of Aztec society to teach would be the material manifestations. While this people lacked the wheel, beasts of burden, and any domesticated animals except the dog and turkey, they did possess a complicated calendrical system, which the students could learn. In addition, they utilized rebus-writing, and students are encouraged to read excerpts from such works as the *Florentine Codex,* which tells the story of Spanish Conquest in Aztec pictographs and Spanish.

Agriculture formed the chief occupation of most people. Fields were irrigated and farming was a male role. Although maize was the chief crop, other plants were cultivated. Due to lack of land, floating gardens were developed, or tribute was levied on conquered peoples. Although tools to raise and process the foods were crude, agricultural methods were sophisticated and even included irrigation. While agriculture was the chief support of the people, trade existed. A standard medium of exchange facilitated commerce within the empire.

Housing and buildings ranged from the crude watling houses of the poor to the homes of wealthy merchants, the palace of rulers, and the temples of the gods. The plan of the city is perhaps best taught by reference to the layout of Tenochitlan (the site of present Mexico City). Here is easily grasped the nature of Aztec cities and their relationship to land and types of buildings.

All of these material manifestations of culture should only be shown in relation to the rather complicated social organization of the Aztec people. (The base line for studying this social structure should probably be the eve of conquest when we know the most.) The most striking thing to the modern eye is the apparent class structure that existed, which included a king ("chief of men") or war chief elected from a lineage, military nobility, priests, warriors, merchants, farmers, craftsmen, landless proletarians, and slaves. As to the degree of rigidity and the nature of hierarchical status, anthropologists and historians differ. Historians stress the rigidity and the class hierarchy, while the anthropologists comparing other cultures emphasize the twenty clans or calpulli composing the four divisions of the town. As a result the anthropologists point out that slavery among the Aztecs was far different than the institution by the same name in the ante-bellum Southern U. S. and that even the king was elected. Certainly the teacher should point out the loose nature of the heirarchy in this society, but the students should also learn that the offices and the wealth had become hereditary to a large degree by the time of the Spanish Conquest. Certainly, the different conception of political and social organization can be seen in the nature of the Aztec empire which was a confederacy of conquered peoples at best, or as it is called, a conquest State, with many unincorporated captive peoples. The very rise of the Tenochans, which we associate with Aztec society proper, illustrates that the Aztec empire was far different from a modern American conception of empire, but it was a primitive state nevertheless.

To this social structure should be tied such attributes as housing types, land ownership, socialization in Telpuchalli (the "house of youth," which provided standard male role training) and Calmecac (school for priestly role). Within the social structure, there existed sex and age-graded roles. The latter is perhaps best represented by the position of the old man who could at long last get drunk. In such a society there was, of course, an elaborate legal system.

The most important clue to the nature of Aztec civilization, and probably the most difficult to teach, is the fusion of the military and religious sectors of culture. Only by understanding thoroughly thenature of the fusion can a student comprehend such diverse things as the seemingly barbaric custom of human sacrifice, the concern with the calendar, the male role as warrior, and the importance of the religious and political elites. Such an understanding is not derived by learning the names of gods or weapons or army organization, but it consists rather in seeing the ideal way of worshipping and the gods and their presumed relationship to man and in seeing the war aims of capturing prisoners for ritual purposes. In the same manner the nature of the whole Aztec society becomes clearer as the student begins to see it as a religio-military society.

Part B: Iroquois Society

In the eyes of Iroquois scholars, two aspects of that society as represented by the five tribes that resided in Central New York State loom larger than any other. First, the place of women was more important than in most primitive societies, and secondly, their confederacy or league is considered unique among American Indians.

While descent was matrilineal and residence was matrilocal, Iroquois society was not matriarchal even though women did play an important role in the life of the tribe. Clan mothers selected sachems, or chiefs, to succeed to a "name," and they could remove the "horns" of office, or depose a chief. However, women never held office nor did they sit in council. At best they could play a behind-the-scenes advisory role.

Roles were few and rigidly specified. Agriculture, one of the mainstays of the economy, was totally done by women. With their crude implements, they cultivated the corn, beans, and squash in cooperative groups. Since the tribe was matrilineal, the mother and uncle were chiefly responsible for the child training, although others helped. Men hunted, fished, warred, and held councils. Even the carrying home of game was done by women, as was the raising of food and the keeping of the home. The Iroquois had no beasts of burden, and the only domesticated animal was the dog, which they used for food.

The Iroquois lived in villages of long houses. The famous long house contained "many fires", that is, many families. Around the villages were palisades for protection against attack. Outside these walls were the cultivated fields. Authorities disagree about the nature of Iroquois property concepts, but apparently cultivated land was held by usufruct. Families had hunting areas within the tribal hunting territory.

Warfare was an important Iroquois activity and made their names feared by neighboring tribes. Wars were conducted for revenge, not for property as among whites. Military expeditions were organized more upon the lines of a private enterprise than a tribal activity. The goal was the capture of other Indians, particularly brave young males. The captives were either adopted into the tribe to replace deceased members or were tortured by men, women, and children. Cruel tortures were devised to test the bravery of the captive who was suppose to sing and hurl insults at his tormenters. The head and heart of a particularly brave victim might be eaten to transfer this virtue to the eaters.

The Confedearcy or League of the Iroquois was founded according to legend to prevent internal warfare among the five tribes. Much dispute revolves about the exact nature of the League, but it was based upon a union of the five tribes through clans cutting across tribal lines. Fifty peace chiefs, or sachems, constituted the council of the League. Its functions were ceremonial and not political (if we mean activities other than internal peace-keeping), although apparently early white perceptions saw it as a political entity. However, actual political decisions were apparently made at the tribal or even local village levels, as for example, warring.

In comparison with the Aztecs, Iroquois society seems much less complex in political and social organization. The League is not the Aztec Confederacy, nor is the Iroquois village of long houses the city of Aztec palaces and temples. Furthermore, Iroquois roles are far more limited than in Aztec life. Even the Iroquois religious activities seem simpler by comparison.

Part C: The Plains Indians

While the Plains Indians of unemotional demeanor and brilliant feather headdress are the Indians of television and motion pictures, a complete analysis of the culture can still produce new interest in students jaded by the stereotype. It was the introduction of the horse by the Spaniards that led to the flowering of the culture as we know it.

The arrival of the horse accentuated some previous culture patterns, caused the decline or deemphasis of others, and made for innovation of still other patterns in many tribes of hitherto diverse cultural backgrounds. The early Plains tribes lived on the fringes of the plains and only occasionally wandered onto it to hunt buffalo. Migrations were aided by the dog as a beast of burden to carry baggage. The horse enabled greater mobility on the plains and could carry more baggage. Thus tents increased in size with the "mystery dog", as they called the horse, to haul the longer poles and the heavy skins covering the tipi, the new home.

Now, men could concentrate more on hunting buffalo and other big game. From the buffalo came rich meat for food; skins for tipis, clothing, shields, bedding, and even boats; and sinew for tying and sewing. Hunting loomed larger in the schedule of activities and agriculture declined. Yet women still cultivated crops as well as dressed the skins and erected and dismantled the tipis during the hunt.

The changed cultural pattern through emphasis and deemphasis affords a splendid opportunity to discuss acculturation and innovation, indeed, culture change in general. With the advent of the horse, Indians had to copy or invent saddles, bridles, and other horse equipment. Warring continued but now the horse gave greater striking power. War was still a private enterprise, but frequently the objective was the capturing of horses. Sacred bundles and religious sites continued but now buffalo hunting was involved. Ritual and regulations were evolved for the hunt. Family, clans, clubs, and bands remained but they adjusted to horse possession and buffalo hunting.

Plains Indian society stressed the young male in war and hunting. War honors were not achieved by slaughter but by stealth in striking a brave enemy or stealing his horses. The degree of bravery was rated on a scale of importance, and woe to the male who counted "coup" for a deed he never achieved. The powerful male possessed war honors and horses, which he gave away as a sign of his status. For the purposes of teaching this unit one or two specific Plains tribes should be chosen. Depending upon the tribes selected there will be variations in the cultures, but no matter which tribe, the teacher should so select as to analyze culture change and dependence upon the buffalo. The rudimentary social organization of any Plains tribe contrasts vividly with the Aztec and even with the Iroquois.

UNIT TWO: THE COLONIZATION OF NORTH AMERICA

Part A: The Idea of Colonization

It is problematical just how much sixth-graders can grasp of all the ramifications of the idea of colonization and the concept of empire in this period. Still it is necessary for the students to grasp at least some of the sub-concepts, both in order to put the usual materials about explorations into perspective and to provide a basis for the study of the American revolution.

Since the culture concept has been emphasized in this curriculum, colonization should be treated, among other things, as an extension of European culture. The explorers and the conquerors perceived the new world in terms of their cultural biases, and the settlers aimed to live in accordance with value-systems learned in the mother country. For example, while gold was of little value to the Aztecs, the Spanish invaders were greedy for the yellow metal. The conquest of North America for the glory of the king and the glory of God (and the glory of Mammon?) meant the extension of the prevailing concepts of political, religious, and economic systems in the mother country. In fact, conversion and exploitation of the aboriginal inhabitants seemed natural and not inconsistent to friar, conqueror, and king. The fusion of these ideas into the whole idea of colonization should be presented to the students if possible, through the actions of the invaders, if not in total abstraction.

In treating colonization, the teacher should always be careful to make an elementary but important distinction: the difference between 1) the motivation impelling groups and individuals to come to the colonies and 2) the supposed utility of colonies to King and country. For example, the greed for gain upon the part of an individual settler may or may not be inconsistent with the mercantilistic sentiments of the court at home. Certainly, the various motivations of individual settlers can be readily presented to sixth graders, but the theories of colonial utility may be more difficult for them to comprehend. To understand fully the latter, the students would have to understand the conditions in Western Europe at the time of the discovery and settlement of North America. The growing nationalism, the religious strife between Protestant and Catholic, the stage of maritime technology, and the evolution of capitalism go hand-in-hand to explain the explorations and exploitation of the North American continent, both as to timing and manner of activity by Spain, France, and England.

That Spain settled Mexico in the sixteenth century, and England and France developed their colonies in the next century goes a long way to explain the difference between those countries' settlements, because of the cultural differences that evolved in Europe in general and in these countries in particular during the century between Columbus' discoveries and the founding of Quebec and Jamestown. The different forms of government that evolved in France and England in the seventeenth century explain why the St. Lawrence and the Atlantic Coast colonies had quite different political systems. Yet, in spite of many differences, the colonies qua colonies had many similarities too. Perhaps some idea of the complexity of the situation can be presented through the study of ships, astrolabe, and compass; the so-called theory of mercantilism;* the theories of land ownership in the New World; and the attempts to convert the natives. In short, the new world of the period was not so much the Western Hemisphere but the new ways for the Old World that allowed its discovery and exploitation.

Part B: Spanish Settlement of New Spain (Mexico)

To the Spanish goes the credit for the rediscovery of America by Europeans. However, due to misconceptions, Columbus presumed that he landed upon an island off the Asian coast, and it was sometime before America was "invented", to use one scholar's term. Few instances show so clearly the filtering of perception by a cultural system as this process by which the supposed New World was recognized as "new" by the "old."

Even after the recognition of the Western hemisphere as new and therefore open to settlement according to the international law concepts of the Europeans, the claims to the new territory and the exploitation of it were conceived in terms of Old World ideas. Explorers and conquerors marched across North America in hopes of claiming new domains for their monarchs and enriching themselves by gold mines and large estates. Because of the reconquest of Spain from the Moors, the people of Spain particularly stressed the Catholic religion as the one true faith (especially after the advent of Luther) and the test of loyalty to the state. Thus New Spain had to be Catholic. The reconquest of Spain had also made military virtues paramount, as well as the acquisition of lands and laborers by the successful warriors. Thus, the Conquistadores sought in New Spain that which their predecessors had sought in Old Spain: military success, crowned by gain in land, laborers, and wealth.

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* (note on mercantilism above: In line with the simulation of economic activities in later grades, mercantilism could be developed as a game at this level.)

Extensive lands and rich mines were useless without labor, and so the Spanish in Mexico turned to the exploitation of the natives. At first this was done simply *repartimiento* or "divisioning," by which conquered land with the inhabitants to work it were distributed among the conquerors as had been done during the reconquest of the mother country. Later *repartimiento* meant temporary allotments of Indians to do given tasks. The *encomienda*, derived from *encomendar* meaning to "entrust," was a grant of land and a town of Indians to work it. The *encomendero* was to civilize and Christianize the natives entrusted to him in return for their labor for a certain period of time. These terms were never precisely defined at any one time, and much controversy exists over their meaning, but nevertheless the exploitation implied in each is apparent to all.

Labor for the mines was obtained by levies on Indian towns' population. Due to cultural perception, the rich silver mines were not even discovered by the Aztecs, let alone developed, for they valued the white metal little. The Spanish prized it greatly, both for personal wealth and for the wealth of the empire. Though natives worked the mines, the laws regarding mining and the methods of working the mines were transferred from Spain. Of all the forms of native exploitation, mining was the most fatal for the Indian. Ironically, Spanish humanitarians urged the importation of African slaves to work the mines in order to save the native population.

The conquest and subsequent exploitation of the Aztecs was facilitated by the aboriginal way of life. That the Conquest was accomplished by surprisingly few Spaniards was due to the nature of the Aztec confederacy which contained numerous unincorporated peoples who would eagerly ally with the Conquistadores. In addition, the ritualistic warfare which stressed captives rather than killing the enemy proved highly ineffective against the tactics and technology of the Spanish invaders. Militarism was not a full time Aztec occupation, and they neither conducted sustained campaigns nor had a good battle organization. Neither did Aztec government officials make speedy decisions. All these factors made for an easy Spanish victory. According to historians, the Spaniards easily accomplished the exploitation of the people's labor because they merely substituted their overlordship for that of the Aztec masters . Such an interpretation may be questioned if the anthropologists are accurate about the nature of classes and the ties of the confederacy. This means, of course, that the classroom teacher must research thoroughly the actual Aztec-Spanish system that came into being under conquest.

In many ways the Spanish, unlike, say the English, incorporated Indian elements into their system of exploitation and even conversion. Aboriginal customs about succession and privileges of native chiefs (who frequently exploited their followers for Spanish favor), Indian village organization, the regulation of labor (as tribute), and agricultural practices, among other things were absorbed into Spanish law about the natives. The culmination of this trend is found in the *Recopilacion de leyes de los Reynos de las Indias* of 1681. Another interesting thing about the relationship between Spaniard and Indian is the similarity of Aztec and Spanish townplan of square and public buildings. This relationship is well demonstrated by the square of Tenochtitlan, in which the palace and temple became the plaza of Mexico City with Governor's palace and cathedral. What can be seen architecturally in a Spanish building standing upon Aztec foundations can also be seen in the syncretism of Mexican Christianity. The Spanish priests utilized whenever possible Aztec bases for Catholic ceremonies and doctrine. The result, as was to be expected, was that the Indian religion is a confusion of pagan and Christian elements. Mestizo culture like Indian-white marriage was a mixture also of the Spanish and the native. How much of this can be shown in an attempt to teach acculturation must be left to demonstration in the classroom.

What worked so well with the agricultural Indians of Central Mexico failed miserably when the Spanish later came in contact with the "wilder Indians" of the North, who used to good advantage the horses stolen or strayed from the Spanish. The attempts, led by mission and presidio, to pacify them in order to extend Christianity and exploitation are developed in Herbert Bolton's famous article. Here is another example of Indian-white relations with quite different results, although one of the cultures in contact remained the same.

Part C. French Settlement of New France (Canada)

In the settlement of New France two aspects should be stressed: first, the attempt to erect a rational, highly bureaucratized seigneurial system of settlement, and secondly, the development of the fur trade which defeated the aims of the seigneurial system and was the major form of Indian-white accommodation. For the sake of analysis, these should be taught in the above order.

In view of this recommendation, the early exploration, the history of the fur trading monopolies, and the Company of the 100 Associates should be treated in the briefest possible scope or by-passed in order to reach the plans for and the development of New France as a royal colony under Louis XIV and his minister Colbert after 1663. The seigneurial system envisaged a colony that was Catholic and agricultural. Not only was the geometric land pattern specified but the duties of the seigneur and his vassal, the *censitaire*, were laid down in detail and strictly enforced by the officials of the central government. While the system had the appearance of feudalism, the strict supervision by the central government prevented the autonomy possessed by the genuine feudal lords of the Middle Ages. Colbert hoped to establish a bureaucratic colony with a table of organization specifying ranks of society and based upon family, agriculture, Catholic Church, and loyalty to the king. The nature of the plan is evident in the land pattern of the St. Lawrence Valley as well as the placement of chateau, Church, houses, and allotments of land in the typical seigneury.

The plan was a notable failure in settling Canada. At the time of its conquest by England, New France had yet to become self-sufficient agriculturally, and the seigneurial domains were of small extent. Few people wanted to leave *La Belle France*, and many of the colonists escaped illegally into the fur trade. One-third of the population was involved in the fur trade by 1680, often with the connivance of the very public officials and seigneurs who were supposed to prohibit such activity as contrary to the plan.

It is in relation to the fur trade that explorations become significant. Interestingly enough, from the earliest explorations on the St. Lawrence, the Indians understood trading with furs and eagerly stripped themselves of fur clothing in order to receive the white man's goods. In a later period, the fur traders constituted the staff of experts and workers for the famous explorers. The economic aspects of the fur trade should be taught along with the colorful customs of the men who traveled and traded. Long term credit was essential to the trade, and, in the end, it was conducted with the homeland and for profit by all engaged. The lines of credit can be seen in the flow of trade goods from France to Montreal to the interior fur forts and the flow of fur back to the mother country. In line with the emphasis on capitalistic enterprise, the *bourgeois,* or proprietor, as well as the *voyageurs*, or subtraders, should be presented to the students.

The chief Indian-white contact occurred in the extension of the fur trade. The small demands of land for the fur forts and the adaptability of the *voyageurs* while living among the natives led to little conflict between the two peoples, except when the Indians were aroused to war by the nationalistic aspirations of English traders or agents. In addition to this accommodation, missionaries attempted to convert the Indians with little of the success seen in Mexico. Many of the Indians encountered by the fur trader and friar had cultures similar to that of the Iroquois, except for the structure of the League.

UNIT THREE: ENGLISH SETTLEMENT OF NORTH AMERICA

From the viewpoint of our analytical framework, the English settlements of Jamestown and Plymouth do not deserve a separate unit in themselves, because the two communities are but the extensions of England in the same way that New Spain and New France are the extensions of those two countries. The same general cultural assumptions about colonies and life within those colonies governed English settlement just as it had governed the other European nations of the period found in Unit II. The length of the material and the significance for the ultimate development of American civilization cast aside these analytical considerations, however, in favor of making initial English settlement in the main land of North America another unit. The teacher, though, should be prepared to treat English settlement no differently than that of France or Spain from the cultural point of view.

Traditional American colonial history, therefore, offers a good opportunity to compare the similarities and differences of English settlements with those of the Spanish and French. These comparisons should be attributed to the national differences within European culture, for colonies are but extensions of their mother countries. Students, as the teacher has been warned previously, should not leave colonial history believing that changes in colonial institutions were caused solely by the impact of repeated frontier experience. Crude geographical determinism neither accounts for tobacco-raising, the use of slaves in the South, or pioneering as such despite many traditional histories to the contrary.

While the temptation is to resort to antiquarianism in portraying the quaint customs of colonial times or to present these people as the forerunners of a great nation, the teacher should remember that the colonists were seventeenth century men and women with the cultural assumptions and folkways of their day. Only by so representing them will the teacher be true to them and to history, and only then will the students truly understand how they both were similar to and different from us today.

Part A. Virginia in the Colonial Period

Although plantations were the most conspicuous feature on the James River in later years, Jamestown did not start out as a community of plantations. Rather it was a commercial establishment for a capitalistically inclined English-based company. The London Company hoped like all other settlement agencies for the New World to make a profit on the labor of the servants sent to the wilderness. The Company promoters hoped that the traditional mercantilist goods would be found in Virginia. Thus the early settlers hunted for gold, were urged to raise silk worms and to export tropical fruits--all to no avail. To this extent the physical environment determined the experiences of the initial settlers and dashed the hopes of the London promoters. But the environment did not destroy the values by which the promoters and the settlers viewed the value of the new land. They still hoped for profit, and they still believed that the economy, the religion, the family life, and the social structure traditional to England should also be the foundation of life in Virginia. In fact, this cultural base shaped the two most significant events in the history of early Virginia. Both the raising of tobacco and the failure and dissolution of the Virginia Company resulted as much from the cultural baggage brought by the early English settlers as they did from the nature of the physical environment.

The eventual rise of plantations growing staple crops (particularly tobacco in the Colonial period and cotton later) was not due to the inevitability of "geography" as traditionally conceived and explained. Staple crop-raising was due as much to the desire for get-rich-quick exploitation of the new land as it was due to the possibility of growing such crops in this climate. This can be demonstrated in three ways. First, the perception of utility of Virginia as a colony rapidly changed from gold-seeking, to tropical products, to finally the crop of tobacco--all get-rich-quick schemes. Secondly, the tobacco grown in colonial Virginia was not indigenous to the area but imported from the West Indies. Lastly, the fertile tidewater land could have been used for other crops than tobacco, but none were so profitable on the market as the "hunble weed" that satisfied the European smoking craze. This whole subject affords a wonderful opportunity to show the relationship of cultural values and the perception and utilization of physical environment.

The failure of the Virginia Company is frequently hailed as triumph of private enterprise over socialism, because the initial colonists had to contribute all their work to the common good of the community. The only problem with this interpretation of events is that the common good happened to be the treasury of a very capitalistically-oriented corporation chartered by the King to conduct settlement for the purposes of exploiting the resources of the new domain. The failure of the company is a complicated matter, but surely socialism was not one of the causes. One of the primary problems was the conflict between the capitalistic desires of the company's servants and their loyalty to the company; but this, too, was not caused by the physical environment, as some have claimed. To attract workers the company had to make property and political concessions, but the more the colonists gained the more they wanted and demanded. True, the physical environment as wilderness unsettled (except by savages in English opinion) fostered a belief that Englishmen had always held about their own welfare. The frontier did not, however, produce the violation of statuses prescribed by the company but merely lent its presence, so-to-speak, to the scarcity of labor which made these violations prossible. What the colonists wanted was not equality but higher status according to the English system which they had known in the home country and which they continued to reproduce as best they could on this side of the ocean. The early political and social history of the colony should therefore be presented in light of this cultural background of facts.

Complicated and abstract as these generalizations may be, they are essential to the illumination of the men and events usually studied about early Virginia in this grade level. Both men and events take on added meaning by being placed in this broader social and cultural context. The attitudes and actions of the men like John Smith, John Rolfe, Governor Dale, and others become meaningful only in so far as they are related to the English culture of their times. In this way, early Virginia is pictured as a microcosm of English life but with some differences. Early Virginia is also a typical colony and should be shown as such.

To continue the analysis of Indian-white relations from previous units, the early contact and warfare of the tidewater Virginians with the Powhatan Confederacy may be studied briefly. Little is known about this tribe, and it was unique compared to most tribes encountered by the English in the colonial period. The Pocahantas story illustrates that both red and white men conceived of marriage alliances among rulers as an aid to trade and to the expansion of political influence. The causes of the massacre of 1622 and the English reaction to it show the incompatibility of Indian-white land use. It would seem more useful to postpone the study of Indian contact to the period of removal and reservation-formation after the Revolution.

The plantation as traditionally taught was not really so much of a seventeenth century phenomenon as one of the eighteenth century. However the beginnings of that distinctive Southern enterprise stem from the very early period of Virginia history, and so the teacher's presentation in the earlier period should foreshadow the later social and economic consequences of the mature plantation economy of the eighteenth century. Care should be taken in the presentation of the plantation to avoid a too-simple approach to a complex social and economic organization (even community). While the plantation was a form on the landscape, it was also an organization of labor and a large-scale commercial agricultural operation. It was the chief surplus-producing unit in the economy, hence the major producer of the exports from the Southern colonies. This meant plantation products needed an overseas market (in England, according to the Navigation Acts), and as a result, the planter's prosperity was closely linked with international trade conditions. This can be made comprehensible to sixth graders through the person of the factor in London and the workings of the factoring system. Thus colonial economic links to the mother country can be shown in terms of persons and the flow of products in trade.

The plantation was also part of a social system as evident in the pattern upon the land as in the rigid class structure. The plantation was surrounded by small farms just as the planter was exceeded in numbers by yeoman farmers. While major in the extent of acreage and in the quantity of surplus produced, the plantation was minor in the total number of agriculture units in the South. Likewise, plantation owners were the highest class in the social structure but their numbers were few. Southern society contained many yeoman farmers who did not own slaves, and it had only a few artisans, merchants, and professionals of the middle class. Thus towns in the Southern colonies were fewer and smaller than those in the Northern colonies. Even plantations varied in numbers of acres and slaves. The various plantation sizes can be shown by pictures both of log plantation houses and large brick, Georgian mansions as well as maps of the various counties. The role of indentured servants will portray in human terms the class structure, as will references to the differing ways of life of the different classes--whether it be pleasure, housing, or dress. Class structure should be demonstrated therefore by more than reference to the great planters with their battalions of slaves. (The nature of slavery as a system should be saved for the Civil War unit.)

While the plantation owner numbered few in the population, his position at the "top of the heap" gave him influence far exceeding his numerical strength. The political system was undemocratic and he dominated the county organization of the Southern colonies. The patrician class in the South aped their version of the English squire who united the political, economic, social and religious in his person; the important planters held local or provincial political office, extensive lands, unofficial titles of squire or gentleman, and posts as vestryman in the local Anglican Church. Regardless of this imitation of English squirarchy, the very wealthy of the Southern colonies rarely equalled the very wealthy of England as can be seen in the comparison of Mount Vernon (George Washington was one of the richest men in mid-eighteenth century America) with a palace in England at the same time.

For the purposes of teaching this section, Jamestown should be used for the focus of the early seventeenth century period because an abundance of sources exist. The very reconstruction of Jamestown offers interesting material in historical method. For the eighteenth century Williamsburg provides the focus, and again the recontructed town offers material on historical method as well as good audio-visual and printed materials. As is clear from this content outline, the colonial period of Virginia should be divided into two sections: (1) the initial settlement and development of Jamestown and the area around it, and (2) Virginia in the eighteenth century with Williamsburg as its cultural and political focus. In the latter period the Tidewater and the Piedmont should not be separated as is traditional because they formed a working social and cultural unity.

Part B: Massachusetts in the Colonial Period

The colonial history of Massachusetts cannot be so neatly divided into two periods focused around two towns as can be done with

Virginian history. Plymouth, unlike Jamestown, does not remain the chief town of size or of interest in early Massachusets history. Puritan Boston soon supersedes the famous town founded by the Pilgrims. Both towns, however, are reflections of English culture. The chief danger to be avoided, in fact, is conveying an impression of too great a difference between the two towns religiously or otherwise and even worse, implying that New Englanders, as they would have it, are saintlier or very different from their fellow countrymen in Virginia. Englishmen are English no matter where they are settled at that time.

The Pilgrims and the Puritans should not be used to perpetuate hoary myths dear to the so-called American heritage, for they were far more lively and interesting than that. Neither group came for religious freedom; rather they came to establish their own form of religious intolerance. The Pilgrims are frequently used to show the failure of communism by the failure of the common storehouse, yet this storehouse was the treasury of a company that was privately owned and as capitalistically inclined as the one sending forth the colonists to Virginia. In short, both groups should be treated as rather typical Englishmen who came to the New World seeking opportunity to have their desires --piety and prosperity.

The physical environment did not force the New Englanders into trade; rather their search for profits made this seem natural. Even the Plymouth colony shows the mixture of religion and economic motives that formed the bases of New England settlement. The supposed common storehouse of Plymouth should be represented for what it really was, however, the treasury of the supporting corporation, and not some socialistic enterprise. The supposedly poor soil of New England produced crops far in excess of home consumption, and so foreign markets were sought. The success of this trade with its Atlantic connections helped its expansion. In New England the rich may have been merchants, but the many were farmers, and both groups assumed a rigid class structure was natural, even God-ordained. The merchants soon arose to challenge the ministers and magistrates of the early migrations. Here as in preceding units, the connections of the merchants, hence the nature of ships' cargoes and persons involved on both sides of the Atlantic in the trade.

New England is famous for its towns. Although many New Englanders did live in houses clustered together in some pattern surrounded by fields, many others did not. Even the nature of the town plan varied from place to place. This variation was not due to physical environment but to the nature of the villages of those who migrated, whether, for example, the home village had an open or closed field system. In light of the variety of town planning and even isolated farms evident from the very beginning of settlement, it is not feasible to speak of the decline of the town into the extended farming pattern of modern times with the assurance of yesterday's historians. Thus it would seem safest not to overstress the village pattern nor imply its traditional concomitant, the ideal unity of church, farming, and local government. The meeting house was important, but many New Englanders were neither communicants nor even attendants at services. Political participation, here as elsewhere in the colonies, was limited to freemen of worth, and in several New England colonies, to members of the Congregational Church in some elections. Since suffrage requirements were transferred from Old England, their basis in social classes was also brought. Contrary to popular belief, then, New England town meetings could not have been havens of democracy. That the political customs were transported may be seen by comparing the names of officers, their duties, and the requirements for voting and officeholding.

Much scholarly controversy exists about the exact nature of seventeenth century Puritanism, but at least a few points can be agreed upon in order to teach sixth graders. Puritanism was only a slight variation of Anglicanism, and certainly far less tolerant of diversity of belief. Furthermore, it is doubtful whether the bulk of so-called Puritans practiced their beliefs with any more faithfulness than the settlers at Jamestown. Lastly, all authorities agree that the original Puritans bear slight resemblance to the stereotypes of them popular today in motion pictures, comic strips, and cartoons. Every endeavor should be made to present them as flesh-and-blood seventeenth century human beings rather than cardboard figures with dour faces, wearing black.

Regardless of the difficulty in separating colonial Massachusetts history into two different periods based upon towns to show seventeenth and eighteenth century differences, the teacher must somehow do this in order to show the changes that occurred between the two centuries. In this way Plymouth and early Boston must be the focus of the early history; later Boston must provide the center of attention for the later period of colonial history, so that the students will understand the change as well as the continuity of Massachusetts history for its own sake and as the background of the American Revolution.

UNIT FOUR: REVOLUTIONARY AMERICA

The American Revolution is extremely difficult to teach upon any level because the term contains such a multiplicity of meanings for the historian. These many meanings are summarized in the phrase for him but are not always apparent to the layman because the phrase seems so obviously simple. The most obvious image of the Revolution is the actual hostilities between the Colonists and England, but most historians mean far more by the term than the fighting. They are concerned with the causes of the hostilities. Why did the Colonists believe it necessary to fight, and why did the English government believe troops wrre necessary in the colonies? But these are only the immediate causes as conceived by the actors in the situation. Why did the colonists and English as actors see things in the way they did? In other words, historians look for what they call long-range causes of the Revolution.

The attribution of long-range causes is a complex task that involves theories of man and society as much as the search for data, for facts of this kind are observers' constructions erected from evidence gathered according to certain perspectives on social, political, and economic processes. In this sense the Revolution concerns the revolution in American nationality and political identification. It also includes the whole development of the colonies in so far as it contributes to understanding how the colonists got to be what they were and thus made them act as they did. Yet the causes of the Revolution cannot be said to be all of colonial history and still possess valid meaning as causes as separate from all of the past. Selection is necessary to writing the history of the Revolution as it is to writing of other histories.

When we turn from the causes of the Revolution to the accomplishments we are as perplexed as before. According to recent interpreters, the colonists fought to preserve their already possessed rights, not go gain new ones. If this is so, then was the Revolution a "Revolution" in the sense that the word is usually used? To interpret the war as a "conservative revolution," as is now popular, does not mean, however, that certain things that represented a changed condition did not occur. But were these aimed-for or unaimed-for consequences of the initial urge to fight? If they were unaimed-for, then can we call them part of the Revolution in the same sense that we say the aimed-for consequences were? For example, the colonists obviously wanted written constitutions for their newly-established governments, but was the federal constitution so obviously the result of the Revolution from the viewpoint of the actor? Lastly, the Americans conceived of the Revolution as a real revolution in the history of Western Civilization. According to them, it ushered in a new kind of nation never before existent in the world. This is yet another meaning of the term American Revolution in comparative perspective.

To teach fully the American Revolution, the teacher would have to cover all these many meanings of the phrase and still more. The extent to which this can be accomplished even in the high school level is doubtful, and it is clearly impossible in the sixth grade. Yet some image of this crucial period in American history must be conveyed even to a student upon this level. In order to do this, the strategy must be to select those aspects of the cluster of multiple meanings that can be understood in an elementary level without distortion and leave the remainder for comprehension at an advanced grade. Varying amounts of understanding can be achieved on all three phases of causes, hostilities, and results of the Revolution, but none will be understood completely by a sixth-grader.

The easiest phase to teach is, of course, the actual war, but even here the students will not be able to learn everything. Battles possess a broader context than the mere clash of arms and the physical movement of armies. Basic strategy and logistic conceptions of the period "explain" the nature and place of battles. The students can also be taught to appreciate this "style" of warfare used by the two armies. So even in warfare, cultural perceptions and attitudes forms a foundation for the nature of the clash.

After the battles, the sequence of events immediately preceding the Revolution could be most easily presented. However, the memorization of a list of events with dates attached does not constitute an analysis of immediate causation. Since the culture concept has been the central theme of this course thus far, it somewhat predetermines an interpretation of the causes of the American Revolution. After all, if the English colonies have been presented as an extension of English norms, values, and folkways, one cannot claim that great cultural differences suddenly deceloped within the decade of 1765-1775. The colonists must be considered as a sub-culture of English society, and the Revolution as a struggle between two groups with the same cultural base.

Fortunately the most current interpretation of the period, postulated in Edmund Morgan's The Birth of the Republic, fits nicely into the pattern of the course. According to Morgan, the colonists who began agitating after 1763 against the Sugar and Stamp Acts had no intention of creating a new nation. He maintains that their intent was to preserve their politico-economic traditions, using Anglo-Saxon methods to achieve Anglo-Saxon ends. The series of events, 1763-1774, caused misunderstanding and conflict between mother country and colonists but, Morgan maintains, a strong desire to remain within the British Empire continued. The events did, however, change the colonists' perception of their role within the empire. First, they adhered to the principle that Parliament could legislate for them but not tax them; next, they moved to the position that Parliament could neither legislate nor tax them and thus that the colonial assemblies were to their respective colonies what Parliament was to mainland England. This shift came, according to Morgan, through no predetermined plan or thought of independence but was rather a result of evolving circumstances and events, 1763-74. The real crisis came because neither Parliament nor the King realized that the colonists' perception of their role within the Empire had changed. Parliament as well as the King maintained the supremacy of Parliament over the colonies.

In Morgan's interpretation, the final step came when the colonists found it necessary "to choose between their rights and their King, and in spite of everything the King had done or failed to do, the choice was not easy." The colonists, using English precedents and the language of an Englishman (John Locke), declared their independence of the then current English government, which they felt had exceeded its powers. Morgan holds that throughout the years 1763-1776, the colonists favored English governmental traditions, exercised English means of seeking change in governmental policy and ultimately sought independence to preserve their English heritage.

In teaching this interpretation, every effort should be made to make clear the traditional "rights of Englishmen" at issue: taxation only with representation, trial by local juries, property rights, and no standing army in peacetime. These concepts should be taught through the use of as many examples as possible so that a discussion of the incidents which led to ultimate independence will be understandable to the student. Every effort should be made to avoid teaching all the provisions of legislative acts (or all the legislative acts for that matter) or all the incidents. Instead incidents should be chosen to elucidate only the four basic rights at issue named above so that the interpretation can be made as clear as possible. The following suggested incidents should be taught in detail: 1) Stamp Act and its repercussions, 2) seizing of Hancock's Liberty, 3) the Boston Massacre (including the trial of British soldiers), 4) Boston Tea Party, and 5) the Battle of Lexington.

The consequences of the conflict are surprisingly difficult to teach students, if an attempt is made to present the customary list of men and their activities in an analytical perspective. For example, the Federal Constitution was not an innovation in the framework of government, for a three-branched structure was traditional in the United States by 1787; rather it was an innovation in the central government of republics. The extent to which high school students can understand such concepts as constitutionalism, republicanism, political party systems, or nationalism as background for the men's ideas and actions in the post-Revolutionary period is doubtful, let alone to represent these concepts upon a lower grade level. No list of memorized dates and events can be a substitute for this kind of analysis.

Perhaps the best that can be done here and for the war period itself is to treat the era as one of the Colonialists seeking an idea of nationality and identifying with a new political community. An attempt should be made to show the problems of "nationality" during the war, i. e. attitudes of Virginians toward men of Massachusetts, seeking of a flag for national identity, struggle of loyalists versus patriots, lack of a "national" army, the rise of "national" heroes. Political unity (and the Constitution where states require the teaching of it) should be treated as a problem of nationality identification, stemming from the colonists' perceptions of themselves as Englishmen and colonists rather than as Americans. (Actual political machinery for the accomplishment of this should be ignored here, because that will be taught in grades 8 and 10.) Thus the unit should end on the theme of American search for a new group identification, resulting from their achieved political independence from the British Empire. It should be emphasized, however, that the English cultural base remains predominant and that nationalism was not fully attained.

Hardest to teach on this level, or any level, would be the long term causes of the Revolution, not only because of their complexity but also because historians so differ among themselves about the factors that caused the split between the colonists and Great Britain. Teachers upon advanced levels side-step the problem by presenting the various interpretations as a lesson in critical thinking, but this course seems precluded in the sixth grade. Perhaps the most the teacher can do here is to show that considerable change as well as continuity occurred between the days of the seventeenth century colonists and the period of the Revolution. Our presentation of eighteenth-century life, North and South, must be primarily in the form of description, but the goal should always be to show the cultural milieu of the founding fathers of the American Nation as a reflection of the society that became the United States. These men came from diverse subcultural backgrounds, but all shared certain English conceptions of the ideal society and the ways to go about achieving this in politics, economics, religion, and other aspects of life. For this reason change, continuity, diversity, and uniformity are evident in the development of towns, cities, and the background of the founding fathers. These men were Virginians, or Pennsylvanians, or New Yorkers as well as Englishmen or later Americans. Cities in the northern colonies differed from cities in the southern colonies. Although the vast majority of Americans farmed on the eve of the Revolution, the crops raised, the methods of agriculture, and the styles of life differed within regions or among regions. The concrete selections of men to represent the era of the Revolution in American life should reflect the diversity as well as the similarity of regional attitudes and behavior.

It is important to develop this overall picture of American life on the eve of the Revolution for several reasons. First, the total picture gives an impression of the amount of change that occurred since the initial settlement of Jamestown and Plymouth. The changes should not obscure, however, the continuity that characterized American civilization. The teacher must not imply that these changes or this continuity caused the Revolution; at best, one can say they accompanied the Revolution (or were the Revolution?). Secondly, the picture serves as the cultural foundation for westward expansion of American society across the continent. What is traditionally taught as a post-Revolutionary phenomena had its origins in eighteenth century colonial life. By 1750 the methods of pioneering, for example, had been "perfected" by colonial Americans. Thus the overall state of "American" development in the mid-eighteenth century is essential to discussing the causes of the Revolution and to portraying the history of the nation after the war and well into the nineteenth century.

From these comments, it is obvious that any presentation of the American Revolution is difficult upon any level, and the lower the grade level, the less that can be understood in an analytical fashion. In the end, the teacher must carefully select features for the narrative of the causes, course, and consequences of the Revolution that imply the sophisticated interpretations of which they are part. Simplistic lists imply simple analyses of a very complex period in American history, a period not yet fully analyzed by the historians despite the multitude of volumes written on the subject. Regardless of how the Revolution is presented at this grade level, it can show that the war was larger than a mere series of battles or a list of miscellaneous dated events.

UNIT FIVE: NATIONAL EXPANSION

Traditionally, this unit is taught as the expansion of the nation westward before the Civil War, but this is to present a partial picture of American history at best. The eastern portion of the nation also changed from the time of the Revolution. Therefore, the unit should imply change in the time as well as the change in space so customary.

When taught as westward movement, this unit is taught stressing the discontinuity between the West and the East, but as this course emphasizes the migration of cultural systems, this unit should examine the continuity of American civilization in expanding westward. Modern scholars seriously question the frontier interpretation of American history both factually and theoretically. Many of the changes between 1760 and 1860 formerly attributed to the frontier are no longer seen in this perspective. Although changes due to the settlement of cheap, sparsely settled land are not denied, such changes seem confined mainly to the material sector of culture.

The continuity can be seen best in the persistence of institutions during the internal migration which occurred in the nineteenth century. The internal migrants flowed in three basic streams for the first half of the century when they settled the area from the Appalachians to the Mississippi: 1) a Yankee-Yonker stream which flowed from New England and through Western New York to the northern parts of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois as well as Michigan, Wisconsin and parts of Minnesota and Iowa; 2) the Southern migration which moved from the Old South to the New South or Old Southwest; and 3) the Southern Upland stream that came from the hills of Kentucky and Tennessee to the Southern portions of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois and moved into Missouri and part of Iowa. As these migratory streams travelled, they carried different ways of farming, cooking, speaking, and living. Where they flowed can be seen in the different village patterns and architecture as well as forms of local government. Despite these differences, each stream was but a variation of the basic American society. (In addition to the internal migration, the later influx of Germans, Irish, and English immigrants must be remembered.)

Pioneering may be presented as process, but it should be presented in proper perspective. True, the initial farm-making was confined to erecting cabins, clearing fields, and cultivating a few crops, and, if the settlers were illegally squatting, subject to Indian raids. Yet the pioneers hoped to become rich commercial farmers, and they were substituting hard labor for capital. Self-subsisting farms were mere temporary expedients to take advantage of cheap land in order to achieve a prosperous commercial agricultural unit--North or South. In both areas, Americans sought commercial farms, except slave-labor was used in the South. Furthermore, inequality existed upon the frontier, for money, slaves and/or education differentiated the pioneers into classes from the beginning.

By presenting these streams of internal migration, the student will readily see the continuity of institutions rather than the innovation of new ones due to supposed frontier influence. Every attempt should be made to show that America civilization marched westward in its entirety and not in stages à la Turner. At the very same time that log cabins were built in small clearings, large estates and plantations were being put into operation nearby. Graphic illustration may be found in James Fenimore Cooper's father's estate in central New York, or Morris Birkbeck's home in Illinois, or a plantation in Mississippi or Alabama. In fact, the Southern migration demonstrates that in many cases, slaves were pioneers, and bondsmen even accompanied some of Boone's settling expeditions into Kentucky. In every way, Americans carried their customary ways with them, including education. government, economy, and social structure. Thus while, for example, Andrew Jackson was a "child of the frontier," what this means is that he was a successful pioneer who gained a plantation, slaves, and a well-to-do wife by utilizing his law degree and his nerve. Once successful, he insisted upon his status through duels and political office. He merely accomplished what all other strove for in the newly opened lands.

Though changes occurred in American history during this period, comparison will show that the West was not responsible for innovation. Whether one compares the rise of the Methodist and Baptist religions or changes in suffrage qualification, analysis shows innovation in the East or equal change in the East as well as in the West at the same time, In order to avoid such false impressions of change and therefore an erroneous cuase for those changes, the teacher needs to develop carefully the mid-eighteenth century picture of society. True, changes do occur in terms of political, social, and economic democracy in the nineteenth century, but these are not due to the frontier in light of comparison between east amd west as to attitudes and actions. Time is more a factor in these changes than is space, but neither accounts for the changes.

To avoid further the usual biased presentation of national growth as due only to westward expansion on the frontier, the teacher should use the evolution of the transportation network as a chance to summarize national growth, east as well as west during the period from the Revolution to the Civil War. Because of Eastern and Western desires for markets and profit, the significance of the so-called transportation revolution lies not in the romance of technology, but in its impact upon the American economy. Canals, and more particularly, railroads created a nation-wide market by "knitting together" the various sections of the United States. At the same time that the railroad physically created a huge "common market" (already provided for politically by the Constitution), it enabled various areas to specialize in different products for the purposes of trade. The westward-moving cereal crops and the rise of dairying and fruit-growing demonstrate this crop specialization in terms of food. The Southern specialization in such staples as cotton and rice is well-known and frequently taught in this period. Lastly, the embryonic industrialization of the Northeastern states offered markets for agricultural produce and the production of manufactured goods for the internal market. Maps of changing commercial routes and trading areas over time reveal the changes in their greater significance. Lastly, the railroad can be viewed as a communications system binding the expanding United States together. (The railroad network on the eve of the Civil War was "concentrated" more in the North than in the South and the major trunklines ran East and West rather than North and South with one exception as can be seen on a map -- factors that have interesting implications for the war and national unity.) All-in-all, the transportation system reflects the larger economic and political structure of which it was part, and therefore offers a good opportunity to present an overall picture of the United States on the eve of the Civil War without getting involved too deeply in the more profound issues of economic development that caused the pattern the student sees.

UNIT SIX: THE CIVIL WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION ERA

The Civil War, like the American Revolution, is a complex subject and therefore embroiled in much historiographical controversy. Again like the era of the Revolution, the Civil War era includes much more than the mere fighting of battles and legendary heroics, because it too has phases involving causation, course, and results. So here, too, choice must be made among such of the basic features of the era that will be least disturbed by presentation at this grade level. All the strictures applied to the teaching of The Revolution apply here also.

With the repercussions of this era so omnipresent in today's America, a serious attempt should be made, nevertheless, to go beyond the tratitional grade-school approach of teaching this period as a colorful drama in which brother fights against brother. The complex, political, social, and economic problems of this era are of course difficult to teach in toto to 11 year olds, but perhaps an approach to them can best be made at this level through focusing the unit in the pre- and post-war period on the Negro, as slave and freedman. The military history so liked by students at this level should of course be retained but, like that of the Revolution, presented in the broader context of logistics and strategy. A more complete analysis of the causes of the war as well as an analysis of the full impact of Reconstruction can be best dealt with at a later school level.

As the previous unit should have made clear to the students, Northerners and Southerners, despite certain differences, had the same cultural base. They were Protestants, capitalists, Anglo-Saxons, and for the most part farmers. The Northern farmer as well as the Southern planter operated his land to achieve profit or at least he hoped to achieve it. The chief distinction was that the Southern planter, if he could afford it, used slave labor. The presence of slavery in the South, long after it had declined and disappeared in the North, was the significant difference between Northern and Southern commercial farming in the nineteenth century. These generalizations, taught in pervious units, should be reviewed before proceeding with the institution of slavery itself.

Discovering the nature of slavery in the ante-Bellum South is difficult, both for teacher and for student. Emotional bias has colored both primary and secondary accounts. In order to learn about slavery, then, the student must be able to read and to think critically. The availability of many easy-to-read sources, listed below, makes feasible the teaching of slavery from such sources.

The best approach to the institution of slavery for this level is perhaps that developed by Stanley Elkins in his monograph, Slavery. Starting with the "Sambo" stereotype, he wonders why this particular stereotype of the Negro developed in the American South but not in Latin America or in Africa itself. He ultimately concluded that the slave system as practiced in America was responsible for developing the personality traits associated with the stereotype.

Elkins maintains that the absolute power of the master over the slave in all phases of life was the key factor in encouraging the "Sambo" behavior of the slave. Since the master (as well as the law) considered the slave as property, he demanded certain slave behavior standards: Obedience, fidelity, humility, docility, and cheerfulness. These standards applied to slaves of all ages, the adults as well as the children, and the rewards and punishments were meted out according to them. The slave in learning to accommodate to the master-dominated system, adhered openly to these behavior standards but also subverted the system. Since the slave had nothing to gain, and often much to lose, from initiative or diligence at work, he often became an irresponsible, lazy, and clumsy worker, requiring more supervision by the master or his agents to obtain industry and diligence. He sometimes resorted to lying or stealing, again requiring even more alert supervision on the part of the master. Lastly, he often carried the demanded cheerfulness to its exrremes of silliness and playfulness, requiring once more additional supervision. Thus the system developed the traits desired by the master -- obedience, fidelity, humility, docility, and cheerfulness, but it also encouraged the undesirable traits of sloth, irresponsibility, lying, stealing, silliness, and playfullness. In other words, the brutality of the system made the Sambo personality the best adjustment on the part of the Negro to the system, and that same Sambo personality proved to the master that he must always handle the slave, regardless of age, as a child incapable of maturity, hence freedom. Thus the system was self-perpetuating and self-fulfilling: The Negro developed the Sambo traits which the whites forced and the system reinforced. These Sambo traits were the antithesis of the desired traits in the White culture South or North -- which were the middle class virtues of industry, honesty, frugality, responsibility, independence, and sobriety (all of which made for long range planning and economic success.) For this reason, teachers in using Southern as well as Northern accounts of slavery should be careful to point out that the White value system directly affects the Whites' perception and often adverse judgment of slave behavior. Moreover, the teacher should also be alert to examples in the sources of Negroes who do not fit the Sambo type and to their acceptance or rejection in Northern and/or Southern society.

If the Elkins' approach is utilized and the social organization of the plantation system has been taught thoroughly earlier, then the teacher should be able to move easily from the institution of slavery and plantation to the willingness of many Southerners to withdraw from the Union and to fight for the preservation of slavery. After all, if the average Southern planter did believe that the Negro was a child incapable of maturity, he would envision grave social as well as economic consequences stemming from emancipation. The Southerner would, as many did, feel that the entire social system would collapse.

At this level, the teacher should be able to explain why many Southerners felt that the institution of slavery was threatened, without getting involved in the legal and legislative complexities of the decade preceding 1860. The activities of the abolitionists, the underground railroads, the failure to return fugitive slaves, the desire of the Republicans to keep slaves out of the territories, the election of Lincoln whose stand on slavery appeared equivocal--all of these "threats" as the South saw them can be explained in terms of specific examples, without resorting to a detailed chronology of the events and legislation of the 1850's. (For example, it is possible to teach students why mid-western Republicans wanted to keep slaves out of territories without discussing all the legislation and court decisions on the subject.)

In explaining the Southerners' fears for their peculiar institution, the teacher should try to make a distinction between the Southern perception of reality and the reality itself. He should try to guard against creating the impression that all Northerners wanted to abolish slavery and make Negroes equal to Whites. This can be done by emphasizing the size, effectiveness, and program of the abolitionists and Republicans as well as other Northerners' reactions to them. One can easily show that: 1) many Northerners did not like abolitionists (use Lovejoy or Garrison), 2) some Northerners did not favor Lincoln (analyze election returns in Northern states in 1860), and 3) some Northerners did not agree with Lincoln's war effort (use the copperheads). The difference that existed between Southern perception and Northern reality may well be best explained at this level through a discussion of the effectiveness of propaganda in molding public opinion. The actual outbreak of the war can be presented as a result of Lincoln's determination to maintain the Union by his refusal to accept the Southern states' withdrawal from it peacefully. Lincoln's mobilization of resources as well as public opinion can be made the chief determinant in getting the North to fight.

The war itself should be taught through a discussion of the objectives, command, strategy, and tactics of the war. The failure of the military to appreciate the modern nature of the war's objectives as well as the difficulties of developing a modern command pattern of civil-military relations can be taught through numerous examples. The mobilization of resources and manpower so vital for a modern total war effort can also be shown through examples of the difficulties of the programs developed in the North and South. Conditions of life for civilians in war areas can be vividly portrayed utilizing the many easy-to-read accounts of women, adolescents, and soldiers. Strategy and tactics should present no real problems for the teacher as these are the interest-provoking items that students have always enjoyed; indeed, the strategy and the tactics can be successfully employed as jumping off points for discussions of the larger significance of the war.

In dealing with the Reconstruction of the South, it would be best to avoid discussing the legal, political, and legislative problems facing the Union Congress and President. These problems are too complicated for sixth graders since they have little knowledge of the intricate workings of the political and legal systems. Emphasis should be focused on the social and economic problems of the freedman.

The physical rebuilding of the Southern devastated area should be relatively easy to teach. Destruction can be shown through use of many pictures surviving from the era. The reduction of Southern white male power can be demonstrated graphically, employing the figures of war casualties. Many easy-to-read accounts of the effects of the loss of male power on the Southern household are also available. The question of obtaining capital and labor to renew commercial agriculture can also be discussed on this level. Students should be able to understand why and how sharecropping developed, if the teacher takes the time necessary to use many examples to show its operation. Again many pictures are available to teach this subject. The rise of the country merchant can be explained as a link in the new credit system established in the post-war South.

The labor question leads directly to the social and economic problems of the freedman. If the teacher did a thorough job of teaching the traits developed in the slave system, there should be little trouble in explaining the difficulties of the Negro freedman in adjusting to the White man's work and social world. After all, as was pointed out above, the work and social habits encouraged in the slave system were the antithesis of those needed to succeed in the White man's world -- to make long range plans and to achieve economic success. Well-developed habits and patterns were not easily changed, as the first-hand accounts of both Northerners and Southerners indicate. The teacher, in using these accounts, can discuss with the students the reasons why adjustment generally was difficult, why some former slaves had more difficulties than others in living in a "new world," and why a few were able to make the necessary changes in their lives. Again, however, the teacher must be warned to make the students aware that both Northerners and Southerners in viewing the freedman may (and often do) react adversely to the freedman's lack of white middle class values and habits. The Southerner, of course, claimed that adjustment was impossible, for, as he had always maintained, the Negro was a perpetual child, incapable of the maturity needed to live a "free" life. For this reason, the Southerner, as soon as was feasible, reasserted the supremacy of the Whites, placing the free Negro once again at the very bottom of the social and economic structure of the South. The Northerners, especially the ones who worked with the Negro in the Reconstruction era, often acquiesced in permitting "Jim Crowism" because he too was trapped by his middle class values and thus failed to understand the needs and problems of the freedman.

UNIT SEVEN: THE COMPLETION OF NATIONAL EXPANSION

From an analytical view, the traditional unit devoted to the trans-Mississippi settlement of the continent after the Civil War is a continuation of the earlier unit on westward expansion after the Revolution. Again the traditional unit suffers from the same distortions as the earlier one with an overemphasis on westward expansion and an underemphasis on eastern developments. It too relies on the frontier thesis as erroneous explanation of change and neglects the industrialism that counted so significantly in the development of the west as well as the East in the Post-Civil War period.

Industrialism, not frontier courage, populated the western plains and mountains with people. Cultural continuity was as important here as it was earlier in the frontier settlement. Even changes that can only be attributed to changed physical environment reveal the continuity of basic values and institutions. Perhaps modification due to changed physical environment is represented best by the migration onto the plains beyond the ninety-eighth meridian made famous by Walter P. Webb in his book, The Great Plains. The flatness, dryness, and treelessness of this area, according to Webb, necessitated the switch from log cabins to sod houses, from wooden fences to barbed wire, from humid farming to dry farming, and made convenient the use of machinery for cultivating and harvesting. The best adaptation to geographic conditions was supposedly raising cattle on the unfenced grass spaces. Yet all Webb really proved is the adaptation of existing institutions. Sod houses like log cabins were mere prelude in the eyes of the hopeful builders to large white frame houses in the latest Victorian style. Dry farming was still commerical farming and still produced wheat, albeit a variety more suited to drier conditions. Cattle ranching was profit-oriented, and in fact did not differ so much from that prevalent in the East since colonial times. Furthermore, it was the railroad that made ranching and wheat crops possible on the plains, for it offered access to the meat packing plants and grain elevators and thence to Eastern workers' mouths. Without a market, there was no profit in farming, and railroads made possible that market. (Even the long drive was to a railroad depot!) Whether the settlement of the trans-Mississippi West is treated before or after the Civil War, these considerations should not be forgotten.

Despite the romance surrounding them, the cowboy, miner, and fur trader were capitalists or employed by capitalists. The cowboy was a low-paid hireling, who acted as a link between the range and the packing plant in the cattle industry. The important person in the industry was his boss. The forty-niners and his successors sought wealth in the fastest of all get-rich-quick schemes, but few succeeded. The mountian man roamed the mountains as a Jacksonian entrepreneur and not as a nature-loving wild man. The important but unsung "heroes" were the ranchers who owned the cattle and "spread," the mine owners, and the fur merchants. Everywhere was the land speculator. In the end, it was the farmer who converted much of the land to a more intensive agricultural use. All hoped for profit; none preferred unremunerated courage or romance.

Again the extension of the railroad may be used to summarize the economic development of the United States. Rails linked the nation together into a commercial entity of specialized areal production, so once more an explanation of the map will present an overall picture of the state of the nation. By 1890 the rail map closely resembles its modern day layout, and so also does the basic economic production of the various regions of the United States.

In this unit we may return to Indian-white relations in order to study the culture of the Plains Indians and their subsequent contact with Americans. Supposedly, the Americans desired Indian assimilation of white culture, and yet when the Cherokees, for example, imitated White plantation life, the Southerners still demanded their removal westward. (In presenting the "trail of tear," teachers must recall that the logistics of mass migration were rudimentary at that time.) In relation to the Plains Indians, the teacher should show the interdependence of buffalo herds, extension of railroads, and reservation formation. Plains Indians, could not be kept upon reservations until the buffalo herds were destroyed. Mass extermination of the buffalo could not occur until railroads advanced westward to cart out the hides collected by the buffalo hunters. Without the buffalo, the Indians were not so enticed to leave the reserves. Lastly, cattle ranchers and wheat farmers could enter the area with safety for their possessions only after the Indians were placed upon the reservations. In any example of Indian-White contact, Americans demanded segreation of the Indian upon reserve lands, whether the Indian attempted to live like

White men or remain "wild." The famous Indian battles in the period after the Civil War are the last of the hostile conflicts between Americans and Red Men and represent the end of the removal process. The removal of the 1830's may therefore serve as an introduction to the nature of nineteenth century Indian-White relations in the United States.

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